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Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES

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PROPOSITIONS OF THE ROME PRISON CONGRESS.

The International Penitentiary Congress at Rome adopted a series of propositions, which will be of interest to our readers, and we present them in a somewhat abridged form, freely rendered into English. We reserve comment upon them, until a future occasion.

I.—CRIMINAL JURISPRUDENCE.

1. The temporary deprivation of civil and political rights is compatible with a reformatory prison system; *provided*, that such deprivation does not take place, except where the circumstances which surround the conviction warrant the apprehension that the convict will make use of his rights to the detriment of public or private interests; and *provided, further*, that sentence of deprivation, when pronounced, should be for a definite period, unless the convict is condemned to imprisonment for life.

2. The criminal code should attach to each offense a maximum penalty (which the court should not be permitted, under any circumstances, to transcend), and also a minimum, (but the court should be granted the right to go below this minimum, in case the crime may have been attended by extenuating circumstances of which the code has not taken cognizance); and where the law distinguishes two grades of punishment—one for crimes which are, and the other for those which are not, infamous—the court should be empowered to substitute the lesser for the greater penalty, if it shall appear to it that the prisoner's motive justifies such commutation.

3. It is for the public welfare, that statutory precautions be taken to guard society against the deplorable consequences of an immoral training given by parents to their minor children; and courts should have power, where responsibility on the part of parents is well established, to deprive such parents, for a definite time, in whole or in part, of their parental control.

4. When a juvenile offender is acquitted of crime, on the ground of his not having arrived at years of discretion, it should be competent for the court to commit him to an educational institution or reform school; the court should assign a limit to the duration of his sojourn in the institution, and should have power to release him, whenever the occasion of his commitment shall cease; he may also be discharged conditionally, but he should be, while upon parole, subject to the supervisory control of the officers of the school. Power to commit juvenile delinquents convicted of crime to an educational institution or reform school (but only to a public institution) should always be vested in the court. Without detriment to existing legislation in any country, touching parental rights and duties, this Congress expresses the wish that, in developing the rights of the parent over his offspring, the law may recognize in its integrity the unlimited authority of every father of a respectable family, free from external control. Parental correction should always be private, a family matter, and it should not entail any penal consequence.

II.—PRISON DISCIPLINE.

1. *Whereas*, without reference to the theoretical questions involved in the discussion of the separate system of imprisonment, it is proper to consider the means which are essential to its practical administration in countries which accept it, in whole or in part; and

Whereas, the construction of any new prison, on any system, in accordance with the most recent ideas of penitentiary science, is of necessity a costly undertaking; and

Whereas, it is important, on the one hand, to reduce to a minimum the special expenses incident to the construction of strictly cellular prisons, and, on the other, to avoid an unwise economy which would deprive such prisons of their special character and utility; therefore

Resolved, that the following are possible economies in the construction of cellular prisons: (1) the suppression of unnecessary ornamentation, inconsistent with the simplicity and severity of a prison; (2) the selection of a site at a moderate cost; (3) the choice of a location which does not necessitate expensive works in order to adapt it to its intended use, in a country which offers every facility for the supply of necessaries, and upon an established route of travel, in order to save freight and transportation; (4) the adoption of the cheapest material of construction, suitable for the purpose, to be found in the vicinity of the prison; (5) inexpensive plans for domestic buildings, (such as laundries, bakeries, and hospitals,) which may either be in the main edifice or in houses of lighter character adjoining; (6) inexpensive arrangement of schools and chapels, with their stalls and stairways—by making use of these at different times, for different groups of the prison population, where that is possible, the necessity for making them so large will be obviated; (7) the suppression of needless basements, or their utilization for services which will not suffer from such location; (8) simplification of the heating and lighting apparatus, system of water supply, etc., in such manner as to avoid heavy ditching and excavation; (9) a diminution in the size of the central building; (10) the avoiding of waste in laying out the yards, between the buildings and the outer wall of enclosure, thus saving both land and length of wall; (11) reducing the area of the buildings on the ground and elevating them a story higher, where the interior and exterior conditions of ventilation are favorable; (12) less massive masonry, where it is practicable, particularly, lighter walls to the upper cells, which should be reserved for the more docile and less desperate prisoners; (13) in general, the employment of architects, engineers, and builders who have had experience in this particular class of work, who should be engaged in such a way as to avoid extras, and, if possible, to interest them pecuniarily in practice of economy in the execution of the plans.

Resolved, that economy in prison construction will be promoted by a proper classification of prisoners and of prisons, so as to distinguish between those awaiting trial, prisoners sentenced for minor offences to short terms of imprisonment, and those sentenced for longer terms, for whom a thoroughly cellular treatment is essential; prisons for the former classes need not be so elaborate as for the latter; and the elimination of all but the higher grade

of criminals from these would do away with the need for so many of them.

2. Local prisons, for persons awaiting trial, or for the infliction of short terms of incarceration, should be organized on the separate system : the discipline should possess, for the unconvicted, none of the characteristics of punishment ; and for those sentenced for short terms only, it should be simply repressive.

3. The employment of convicts upon public works, in the open air, is admissible in some countries, and should not be regarded as irreconcilable with the prison systems actually in use in different countries.

4. In connection with every prison there should be some local organization charged with the duty of watching over the prisoners, aiding in the work of their reformation, and helping them to obtain employment upon their discharge. (We omit the details of the specific plan proposed.)

5. The question of a proper prison diet is partly one of philosophy and partly one of science. In so far as it is a scientific question, it rests upon three physiological postulates, corroborated by experience, as follows : (1) A prisoner in health should receive the minimum quantity of food requisite to keep him in condition ; this is called the ration of subsistence, and it is represented by a variety of alimentary substances, according to the climate and the habits of a particular country, but it should include a portion of meat. (2) A prisoner who labors should receive a supplementary ration, called the ration of labor. (3) The ratio of albuminous or nitrogenous to non-nitrogenous substance may vary from two thirteenths to one third, but ought not permanently to transcend these limits, more or less. In the application of the foregoing principles, it may be added that every prisoner ought to undergo a medical inspection at the date of his entrance into the prison, and that he should be weighed at stated intervals. A special diet may be given to prisoners of altered constitution, or who are exposed to endemic diseases.

6. In every prison, for either sex, a school should be maintained, in which should be taught at least reading and writing, the elements of arithmetic, lessons about things, and, if possible, the elements of drawing ; in addition, technical instruction should be imparted in the arts and avocations by which prisoners are to obtain their living, when liberated.

7. On Sundays and holidays every prisoner should be free to choose his own occupation—writing letters to his relatives, reading, music, drawing, sculpture, wood-carving, etc., according to the customs of the country to which he belongs ; and he should be permitted to take part in conferences organized by the members of prisoners' aid societies, on questions of morals, of law or of science, according to the special circumstances of each place.

III.—PREVENTIVE MEASURES.

1. It is desirable that as many nations as possible agree upon a uniform system of criminal registration ; but, in order to the accomplishment of this design, a diplomatic conference will be essential. Until the desired uniformity can be secured, an exchange of bulletins of criminal procedure can be had between various governments by means of treaties or simple conventions.

2. An exchange of prisoners, so that they may endure, in the land of their birth, the execution of a sentence pronounced by a foreign tribunal, is impracticable, and if practicable, it would be undesirable. It would, however, be desirable, in view of the difficulty of giving a foreign prisoner an education, to provide that, where the penal laws of two countries are analogous, their governments should mutually agree to confide the execution of sentence to the courts of the prisoner's native country, except in respect of the final review and the reimbursement of costs.

3. Public relief should be so regulated as to insure to every poor person the means of sustenance, but only as the reward of work suited to his bodily powers. The poor person who, in spite of the aforesaid regulated assistance, persists in a vagabond life and so falls under the operation of the law, should be severely punished by imprisonment at hard labor in a workhouse.

4. Visits to prisoners by members of prisoners' aid societies, or, if none such exist, then of other benevolent associations, unconnected with the prison administration, should be authorized and encouraged, subject to the rules of the prison, and on condition that they do not lead to a dual influence or authority. The visitor's interview with the prisoner should be as free as possible, and not in the presence of any officer.

CRIMINAL ANTHROPOLOGY.

At the Congress of Criminal Anthropology, which assembled in Rome, at the same time with the International Prison Congress, the programme of questions for discussion was divided into two sections, criminal biology and criminal sociology. Under the first were included the following :

(1) What categories of criminals may we distinguish ? and what are the fundamental characteristics, physical and psychical, which they display ?

(2) Is there a general bio-pathological constitution which predisposes its subject to the commission of crime ? how does it originate, and what forms does it assume ?

(3) What is the proper classification of human actions, based on the affections which give rise to them ? What effect does the education of the moral nature have upon the passions, and indirectly upon crime ?

(4) Does the number of suicides increase in inverse ratio to the number of homicides ?

(5) Epilepsy and moral insanity in prisons and insane asylums.

(6) Malingering among the insane.

(7) The utility of an Italian museum of criminal anthropology.

(8) The influence of atmospheric and economic conditions upon crime in Italy.

Under the head of criminal sociology :

(1) Should the theories of criminal anthropology be embodied in the revision of the penal code of Italy ? and why ?

(2) Examples and consequences of dogmatism in our present criminal procedure.

(3) The function of the medical expert in judicial procedure.

(4) The best means for securing indemnity from crime.

(5) The best means of combating relapses into crime (recidivism).

(6) Crimes of a political character.

(7) Ought students of criminal law to be admitted to penal establishments ? and under what conditions ?

We can not too highly commend the method of study of crime which begins with the study of the criminal himself. It is impossible to evolve the criminal out of one's inner consciousness. Knowledge of his peculiarities is essential to any rational treatment of him, and this knowledge can only be gained by systematic, intelligent observation of his physical and mental habits, supplemented by an exhaustive, analytical comparison of the facts observed, with a view to their right classification and interpretation. When we receive the proceedings of this congress, our readers shall have the benefit of the valuable information which it has collected and made public property, for which it will receive the thanks of all enlightened men and women.

The next session of the Congress of Criminal Anthropology will be in Paris, in 1889.

The criminal has rights, and chiefly the right of reformation.

To treat men as if they were better than they are, is the surest way to make them better.

To reform prisoners, or to make them better as to their morals, should always be the leading view in every house of correction, and their earnings should only be a secondary object.—JOHN HOWARD.

Recorder Hill, of Birmingham, summed up the teachings of Captain Maconochie in a single sentence. "Begin to reform the criminal the moment you get hold of him, and keep hold of him until you have reformed him."

M. Adolphe Prins, inspector-general of prisons in Belgium, is responsible for the statement that in Paris there may be found, on any morning of the week, 50,000 persons who do not know how they are to get any thing to eat, nor where they will sleep ; that in London, 100,000 homeless children wander in the streets ; and that, in 1880, in Vienna, 90,000 persons who had no home were admitted into refuges and asylums.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE.

For the benefit of those who desire to know more of the organization of the National Conference, we reprint the report of the Committee on Organization, adopted at Washington :

The organization of the National Conference of Charities and Correction is of the simplest character.

A president, one or more vice-presidents, and three secretaries, comprise the officers, and are selected by a nominating committee, appointed at each meeting.

The council is composed of all ex-presidents.

A corresponding secretary is appointed from each State and territory.

The committees consist of an executive committee, which elects one of its members as treasurer ; and a committee upon each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the coming Conference.

The Conferences do not raise money to pay the expenses of the meeting, and have no fund upon which to draw. They, therefore, depend entirely on the local committee in the place where each meeting is held, for these purposes.

The cost of publication of the proceedings is paid by the sale, subscriptions being taken in advance, and the price being so fixed as to include the free distribution of copies to the officers of the Conference, corresponding secretaries, writers of papers, the governors of States, and the newspaper press, in the cost. The cost of reporting and editing the proceedings is paid by the local committee. The Conference is thus enabled to place its proceedings in circulation at a very low rate.

The business committees are relied on to prepare papers and discussions on their respective subjects.

It devolves on the corresponding secretaries for the States to work up an interest throughout their several States, to procure the appointment of official delegates by State boards of charities and corrections, or similar bodies, where there are any, and by governors, where there are none, and to publish information as to the Conference, when the circulars of invitation and programmes are issued.

The local committee is expected to supply the necessary funds to pay expenses, and to make all preparations locally for the meeting, and to secure low railroad and hotel rates.

The president-elect supervises the whole of these various preparations, sees that no oversight of business is made, corresponds with governors and boards of charities, supplies omissions in the appointment of officers and vacancies which may occur afterwards, and directs the meeting while in session.

The treasurer is custodian of the unsold copies of the proceedings and of the money received and disbursed in course of their preparation.

The executive committee is the president's advisory board, and holds the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings.

All of the above officers hold their offices for the term of one year, or until the next meeting of the Conference.

We add to the above report the following extract from the preface to the proceedings of the Conference at Louisville :

The nucleus of this organization is the State boards of public charities, who originated it and have given to it a semi-official character. The societies for the organization of charities in cities are also an important element in it. But it welcomes to its membership all persons officially or unofficially connected with charitable or correctional work of every description in every part of the Union ; and every charitable institution or association in the country is invited to be represented at its meetings and take part in its deliberations. It has no formal constitution or conditions of membership, and no fee for entrance or annual dues.

The following observations, taken from the same preface, are also worthy of attention :

Nothing has been more admirable in itself, or more worthy of remark, than the spirit in which members of the Conference have met each other in the performance of the duty which they have undertaken to discharge. The one thing they have desired to know is the truth, and the one thing they have desired to do is the right. On this basis co-operation has been easy between men and women of the widest possible diversity of opinion and sentiment upon political and religious questions ; no such difference has for one moment interrupted the harmony and good-fellowship by which the meetings of the Conference have been characterized. No restriction has been allowed to fetter the absolute freedom of thought and of expression. The self-restraint exercised in refusing to formulate conclusions has quieted the fears of those who are unwilling to be bound by such formulas (either because of their inability to agree with them or because they tend to crystallize thought and impede its onward current), and has prevented occasions of strife and division. It has been understood that the Conference is simply an exchange for the comparison of views and experiences, not a convention for the adoption of any creed or platform, nor a body organized to accomplish any scheme or undertaking. The application, in practice, of the views and recommendations of individuals, whether in the majority or minority, is left to those who accept them, upon whom the responsibility of their practical application must rest. The effect of this policy has been breadth, catholicity, charity, freedom, and courtesy in all the debates of the Conference, whatever may have been the opinions held or the measures advocated by the speakers and writers. The influence exerted upon public sentiment has been perhaps all the more powerful because it has been indirect.

PROCEEDINGS.

The Proceedings of the Conference of Charities, which form a most important series of annual publications, and ought to be in every public library, are not published for profit. The cost of producing them is met as follows : The Conference meets in some city or town which has extended to it an invitation and agreed to defray the incidental expenses of the meeting, including the payment, for services as a stenographic reporter, of the official editor. The several State boards of public charities, who are the nucleus of the organization, subscribe for such number of copies as they desire, and the cost of the edition is supposed to be assessed against them in proportion to the number ordered by each. In fact, however, these subscriptions are insufficient. Of the Proceedings of the Twelfth Conference 2,000 copies were printed, 700 of which were bound in paper, and 1,300 in cloth. The number of copies ordered by the State boards was about 1,250 ; and 250 or 300 more were ordered by individuals, leaving about 500 unsold, for future use. The amount received from the State boards will be about $1,100, from individuals about $250, while the total cost of printing, binding, and distributing is nearly or quite $1,800. According to these figures, there is a deficit of $400 or $500 to be made up in some way. Last year the members of the Executive Committee put their hands into their own pockets and paid it, but if this were understood to be the condition of a seat in the committee, it would be difficult to find gentlemen willing to serve on it. It may be mentioned, without reflection upon any one, that of the $1,100 subscribed by the State boards, nearly two thirds was by four States—Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, all in the Northwest. If the other six States which have similar boards had done equally well, in proportion to their population, wealth, or the number of their charitable institutions, there would have been no deficit. It is to them that the Conference should look for aid in this juncture, and the best way to help the Conference is for individuals and institutions to order copies of the Proceedings from the editor, Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, 141 Franklin St., Boston, at the low price of one dollar and a quarter in paper, or one dollar and a half in cloth, for a volume of 516 pages, unique in character, and of the greatest interest. Orders should be accompanied by the money. Or they may be obtained from G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, or Cupples, Upham, & Co., Boston. The Conference needs, and should have, a permanent publication fund, which we trust may be provided, during the present year; it need not exceed $2,000. Will not some wealthy and benevolent reader of the RECORD advance it, in aid of a work of such national importance and value ?

Senator Canonico, of Italy, while in Sweden, was informed that the facility with which discharged convicts are persuaded to emigrate to the United States materially lightens the burden of labor and responsibility devolving on the Swedish prisoners' aid societies : one per cent. of the entire number discharged are shipped annually to this country—principally to Chicago.

I tossed a little, dried-up root into a dark corner once, when I was doing a bit of gardening. You are of no use, I said, and might as well rot. But the little thing knew better than that. I had given it up ; but, then, it fell back on the only God it knew of—our blessed mother, Nature. It ran rootlets into the tilth by May, and began to sprout. Then June came along, and said, You must flower. But there was no flowering in that dark hole. So what should my brave little root do, but creep out of the hole on a long stalk, find the sun, and unfold a blossom blue as heaven and beautiful, and then turn up its cup to drink the dew ? And so it was that one day, when I went to hunt up an old rake or something in the hole, there was my blossom—no, not mine, God's blossom—bowing to me in the sweet south wind, and seeming to say, Good-morrow ; and I lifted the bonny bluebell, and kissed it tenderly, on my knees. I have never heard such a sermon as my bluebell preached that June day.—ROBERT COLLYER.

LEND A HAND.

We cordially wish the largest possible measure of success to Mr. Edward Everett Hale's new magazine, published in Boston, entitled *Lend a Hand*. His famous motto, "Look up and not down, look out and not in, look forward and not back, and lend a hand," is painted in the frieze of our sanctum, and has inspired us in many a weary hour.

Among many good things in the first number of this magazine we specially note the realistic description of the United States prison at Fort Smith, Arkansas, by Miss Anna L. Dawes. It "consists of two rooms in the cellar of the government building, with no light except what comes from underground windows, and no outside ventilation." The government building is "a large, low, southern house, once the quarters of the commandant of the post, built of brick with stone foundations, and surrounded by wide verandas." The cellar is divided into two apartments by the brick partition wall which supports the upper stories. "Each of the rooms thus made, or cells, as they are called, is fifty-five feet long and twenty-nine feet wide; their height from floor to ceiling is at the utmost seven feet. The small windows which light this black hole are at each end, underneath the wide verandas." A single sink in each cell affords the sole facility for washing which the government has provided for prisoners in this dungeon. "There are no baths; only now and then some more fortunate prisoner is allowed the use of a coal-oil barrel sawed in two." "The single bucket which serves the convenience of the inmates is placed in a closet in the chimney, that the odors may be carried off through the only method of ventilation known to this jail."

Miss Dawes says: "Into these reeking holes are crowded criminals of every age and degree. The court has jurisdiction over all crimes committed between the white men on the reservation, against white men by Indians, against Indians by white men under certain conditions, and over all infringements of United States laws. Its prisoners are some of them full-blooded Indians, wild with all their savage passions, and filthy beyond any eastern conception; some are border ruffians, who have lost none of their villainy, or their loathsomeness is losing the picturesqueness of a past day; some are the low-lived, mean, and sneaking population who hover on the borders of this neutral country; some are hardened criminals of the worst type, who have fled from the law of the States to seek refuge in the wilds of the Indian country; some are innocent boys, brought here for a trifling theft; young men who, in a moment's rage, have broken the public peace; respectable tradesmen who have unwittingly infringed some stringent United States regulation about arms or liquor; innocent citizens accused by some revengeful neighbor and awaiting trial; outcasts whose crimes are beyond the possibility of mention; murderers who have been caught, not in their first, but in their fifth or seventh, murder. It is literally true that at Fort Smith all these persons are confined in the same room—the close, unventilated, wretched place already described. Nor are the prisoners limited to those awaiting trial. In the midst of the desperados, the villains, and the murderers are all those criminals already sentenced whose terms do not exceed a single year. Those sentenced to a longer term are sent to Michigan. Happy the convict whose crime is large in the Indian Territory, for worse is a single year of Fort Smith than a cycle of Detroit."

The average number of prisoners in confinement is 78, and in June of last year there were 109. "The sick and the wounded must live in these same rooms. There is no other provision for them. It completes the picture to remember that small-pox is a disease very common to the Indian."

In calling attention to this prison, Miss Dawes has rendered a public service. It has been reported to the Department of Justice and to Congress in vain. What is needed is some expression of indignation on the part of good men and women at such criminal neglect and barbarity, for which the government of the United States must bear the sole responsibility. An Arkansas citizen is now in the cabinet as attorney-general: what steps has he taken or does he propose taking, to remedy this wrong? The indifference of the government to questions of prison discipline, even where they directly concern those who have been sentenced by its own courts, is amazing. Some years ago, Gen. Bane, of Utah, described the prison in that territory, but no notice has ever been taken of his indictment of it, so far as we know. The military prison at Fort Leavenworth is a well-regulated establishment and deserves praise; but we are ashamed to print, in a paper which circulates in foreign lands, such a reflection upon the intelligence and humanity of our people as is conveyed in the simple narrative which we have quoted.

ITALY AND AMERICA.

Signor Martino Beltrani-Scalia, privy councillor to King Humbert, and formerly director-general of the Italian prisons, under the Minister of the Interior, has requested the editor of the INTERNATIONAL RECORD to become a collaborator with him in the publication of the *Rivista di discipline carcerarie* (*Review of Prison Discipline*), of which he is the editor-in-chief, assisted by Signor Napoleone Vazio, who is now director-general of prisons for the kingdom of Italy.

In accepting this fresh responsibility and duty, the editor of the RECORD relies upon the co-operation and assistance of those in charge of prisons in the United States, or otherwise specially interested in the subject. American affairs are attracting increased attention abroad, and we owe it to ourselves to respond promptly and cordially to all European requests for information respecting our institutions. All officers of prisons and reformatories in this country, therefore, who publish annual or biennial reports, are earnestly requested to forward immediately copies of their latest publications to the following address: *La Direzione della Rivista di discipline carcerarie, Tipografia Artero e Comp., Roma, Italy.* This invitation is extended also to directors of prison societies, etc.

The announcement of the *Rivista* for 1886 expresses aims which are almost identical with those of the RECORD, so far as they go; but our field is of course wider, since it is not confined to the prison question. We quote, for instance, the following sentence:

> Whatever may be our personal convictions, we have but one purpose. *A priori*, we accept nothing and reject nothing; but we seek the truth, for the truth's sake, in the spirit expressed by Cicero, when he said: *Quæro omnia, dubitans plerumque, et mihi diffidens.**

We congratulate the *Rivista* on its record for the past fifteen years, and believe that the enlargement of its programme, to include the question of prevention, by caring properly for children, will more than double its future usefulness. The points covered by it are seven in number: (1) A résumé of the more important legislation on the prison question in all nations; (2) the presentation, in a summary form, of international criminal statistics; (3) notices of books and pamphlets in various languages; (4) translations of foreign articles and publications; (5) reprints of rare treatises on the history of criminal jurisprudence and of penitentiary reform; (6) special studies on the dangerous classes in Italy, and the best methods of dealing with them; (7) original correspondence. This review will cease, from this time, to be the organ of the International Prison Commission, and it has no official connection with the Italian government.

The search after a universal remedy will prove as futile in social diseases as in bodily ailments.

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* I inquire into every thing, take nothing on trust, and habitually question my own conclusions.

CONVICTS AND BLOODHOUNDS.

A correspondent of the *Nashville American*, who signs himself "Wynton," writes to that paper from Pratt Mines, Alabama, where there is a convict camp, that Mr. E. O. Crauswell keeps, within the stockade, there, a kennel of bloodhounds, said to be "the only pack of genuine bloodhounds in the South." Of their owner he gives the following personal description :

He is heavily built, six feet and eight inches tall, of florid complexion, and wears a wide-brimmed slouch hat. His feet were encased in high-topped boots, into which his trousers were stuffed. His coat was open in front, and showed an immaculate shirt of snowy whiteness, on the bosom of which, half-hidden in the ruffles, glittered a large diamond. He had the appearanee of a desperado, but he was genial and frank, and an interesting talker, with a voice as soft as that of a woman, and with actions as timid as those of a school-girl.

Mr. Crauswell is said to have been born in Pike county, Alabama ; his father was a hunter, and, before the civil war, used to hunt deer and chase runaway negro slaves. In 1882 he brought five dogs, which had belonged to his father, to the mines, where they are used to track escaped convicts. Two of them—Fanny and Bucker—are famous for their skill. The young dogs are trained by him for this business. The correspondent of the *American* adds :

When three months old, they are put through a course of training. A trusty convict is started off on a run, with the dog at his heels, and runs a short distance. At first, a run of five minutes' start is taken, and the time is increased, until the dog can trail well at a start of thirty hours. The only difficulty is to keep them from changing tracks. Fanny will never give tongue to any but the first track taken by her, even though a hundred persons were to cross it. When a convict escapes, a general alarm is sounded ; the dogs are taken to the place where he was last seen ; Crauswell mounts his fast horse ; and the dogs are let loose.

Interesting and graphic descriptions are given, in the letter from which the above citations are taken, of sundry chases by this pack, of prisoners named DuBose, Williams, Garner, Davis, and Renfro ; also of a negro who escaped in the month of March, 1884, and had twenty-eight hours the start of his pursuers ; he made an astonishing run of forty miles—ten miles of which was through water ; when captured he was half starved.

Mr. Crauswell is represented as saying :

The affection of the dogs for me is more like that of a child for its father than any thing else. I treat them tenderly, and they love me for it. I have five fine puppies, four months old, with fur on them like sheep, which are now ready to track a man to the depths of hell, if he could travel so far. I am raising them for sale, and I guarantee them to find a trail thirty-six hours cold."

When asked whether he is fond of this business, he replied : "I love it, and would follow no other occupation."

From a little pamphlet entitled "A Chapter on the State Prison at Folsom," and distributed with the compliments of the warden, we learn that that prison has a pack of bloodhounds trained to track escaped convicts. "The leader of this pack is a fine-looking brute, by Jay Rial's Siberian bloodhound King out of a foxhound ; and she has already distinguished herself by the capture of a Chinamen who, although wounded in attempting to escape, managed to cross the guard-line and secrete himself some distance away in the hills."

THE WHIPPING-POST.

Mr. Goldsborough S. Griffith, President of the Maryland Prisoner's Aid Society, has been visiting the penal institutions of Delaware, and gives the following graphic description of a mode of punishment which has happily fallen into general disuse in this country. He says :

Through the courtesy of the warden and the other officers I was conducted through the entire building, and afterwards to the yard, in the centre of which stands that monster of civilization, the pillory and whipping-post, which is only used on Saturdays, when from two to six are generally punished in this harsh and barbarous manner. On such occasions, the large gate leading outside the wall is thrown open to the public, and crowds of spectators congregate to witness the revolting sight. It often swells to such a mass, that the curious can scarcely find standing-room within the enclosure. Prisoners sentenced on a serious charge are first taken to the pillory. This is a round, uncovered platform, ten or twelve feet high, and must be mounted by a ladder. Here they are compelled to stand on their toes, with their necks in a yoke, and their arms pinioned in a most unnatural and strained position, which soon becomes a positive torture, and is said to be equal in severity to that of the whipping-post, which immediately follows the hour of standing in the pillory. They usually receive from ten to forty lashes, well laid on the bare back with a cat-o'-nine-tails, which often draws blood. For petty offenses they are only whipped, without being placed in the pillory. I asked the officer who attended me what he thought of this mode of punishment ? He said that he did not like it, that the practical result did not seem favorable. The punishment was too degrading, and not only caused those who endured it to lose what little self-respect they still retained, but made them more desperate ; and he had known instances where it was repeated several times on the same prisoner without any salutary effect. It is also very demoralizing to the men, women, and children who are indiscriminately permitted to witness the disgraceful sight. Mr. Griffith adds : In order to show how very digusting such scenes are, I will relate the following incident which occurred some years since, and was told to me by a reliable gentleman of Delaware. "A colored woman, mother of a very young infant, was convicted of a trifling larceny, brought to the whipping-post, made bare to the waist, and then lashed until every cut drew blood and caused the milk to gush from her breast, which horrible sight was hailed with shouts of laughter by the vulgar crowd."

HIGHBINDERS.

A St. Louis correspondent of the *Chicago Daily News* gives the following explanation of the term "highbinder" :

A highbinder is a member of the Foo Toe Tsai company, a secret order, which has grown out of the Triad Society of China, which is the remnant of the Tai Ping rebellion, thirty years ago. The society is, of course, inimical to the ruling dynasty : in China it has for its object a change in the government, and to this end it is engaged in collecting money and raising troops : membership in it is punishable by death. In America, however, the character of the organization has been changed. The Chinamen of America come chiefly from the districts of Sing Ning, Sin Way, Hian San, and Hock San, in the province of Quong Tung, the capital of which is Canton. In the early days of the excitement caused by the discovery of gold in California, the Chinese from this province thronged to the Pacific coast, impelled by the desire to get rich. During those troublesome times, the Triad Society was transplanted to our shores. At first the organization was governed by the spirit which pervaded the parent society ; but it gradually assumed the character of an instrument of oppression and blackmail. Under the name of highbinders, its members have become the terror of every Chinaman in America, without regard to age, sex, or position in life. Any Chinaman who is obnoxious to the order is first warned, anonymously, to leave the community ; and if the warning is disregarded, he is put to death. A highbinder is a sort of Chinese Molly Maguire, a professional assassin, whose services can be hired to commit murder. Rival factions among the Chinese, and even leading families and gambling-houses, keep them in their pay as retainers. If this resource fails them, they sometimes maintain themselves by a regular levy upon store-keepers. They constitute a very despicable and formidable section, in proportion to their numbers, of the criminal class.

EARTHEN FLOORS AND PURE AIR.

The Hindus of every part of India with which I am acquainted, have from time immemorial possessed a means of purifying the atmosphere of their rooms and tents, by spreading a light coating of a mixture of earth containing organic matters on their walls and floors, which enables them to dispense, to a considerable degree, with ordinary ventilation. The process is called "coping," and is usually performed by the women of the household. With a view to submit this proceeding to a practical test, I had four cells in the Presidency Jail of Calcutta, each containing 480 cubic feet, and practically unventilated, carefully prepared. Two of them were limewashed throughout, and the two others "coped." I had four healthy prisoners locked up in them at night, one in each cell. On opening the cells next morning, the two which were limewashed were stuffy and offensive, redolent of the peculiar animal odor exhaled by native prisoners in such circumstances. The two others were as fresh and as pure as if no one had slept in them. This led me, as head of the prison department, to direct the application of the principle generally in all the jails under my administrative control, so far as it was susceptible of direct application to walls, floors, and earthen beds. I also employed charcoal extensively for the same purpose—the purification of the air of prison wards from animal exhalations—and, I had reason to believe, with success.—Dr. F. J. MOUAT.

The vices of the age cause three fourths of its poverty.—SPURGEON.

Protection is a higher word than prevention, as prevention is higher than punishment.—T. L. ELIOT.

INSTITUTION ANECDOTES.

It must not be supposed that, because charitable institutions have their sad side, they have not a humorous side as well. Many amusing circumstances occur to relieve the serious aspect of institution life.

In the Indiana State Hospital for the Insane, some years ago, there was a patient named George, who had a fashion, not uncommon among the insane, of praying aloud at his open window. The medical superintendent was returning from the city late one summer night when there was no moon, and passing under George's window, stopped for a moment to listen. This was the burden of his supplication to the throne of grace: "O Lord, send us plenty to eat. Send us chickens, Lord, *yaller-legged* chickens. And, O Lord, send us pies, plenty of pies, pies enough for the whole world, O Lord, so that everybody can have a pie." The doctor, who had a keen sense of fun, said, in a deep, sepulchral voice, "George, what kind of pies?" The patient fairly shouted: "Pumpkin pies, O Lord." The doctor entered the house and said to his wife, "My dear, have we any pumpkin pies in the larder?" "I think so; we had some for dinner, and I presume that they are not all eaten up." "Well, I wish that you would send up into such a ward, have George called out of his room for a moment, and put a pie on his window-sill." So said, so done. The next morning, when he went his usual round through the hospital, he addressed George and remarked, "I heard you praying again last night." "Yes, and my prayer was answered." "How so, George?" "I prayed for pies, and I found one on the window-sill." "Where do you think that pie came from?" "Right down from heaven, of course, where should it come from?" The physician shook his head. The patient exhibited signs of anger, but listened attentively to the true story of the events of the preceding evening. He seemed lost in thought for a few moments, and then exclaimed: "What a fool I have been," which was the first rational word he had uttered since his admission. He subsequently recovered.

In one of the Illinois institutions for the insane, it was formerly the custom to have religious exercises in the chapel, each Sunday, conducted in turn by the pastors of the local churches. One of the churches had recently settled a new pastor, who presented himself at the hospital one afternoon for the purpose of preaching to the patients. The superintendent explained to him that the service was designed for people who were sick and afflicted, very nervous, and not prepared to sit quietly under an exciting discourse; therefore he recommended him to select as his subject some of the gentler themes of the gospel, and not to preach the terrors of the law. But our clerical friend was already prepared with a discourse which he was unwilling to see wasted, so he proceeded to speak on foreign missions, and described in harrowing style the cruelties practised by the heathen—particularly the car of Juggernaut, the swinging dervishes of India, and the casting of infant children to the crocodiles in the Ganges. The doctor sat through it patiently, though much annoyed; no disturbance took place; but when the clergyman took his seat, one of the insane men leaned forward and called him aloud by his name. No answer. The patient called again, somewhat more vehemently than before, but still the preacher maintained a dignified silence. The patient said, louder than before, "I say, Jones." Finding it necessary to reply, to quiet him, the minister said, abruptly: "What?" Dropping his voice, the excited listener exclaimed, in a stage whisper, "I say, Jones, what a pity your mother had not thrown you to the crocodiles, when you were a baby."

It should be generally known, that religious melancholiacs are, almost without exception, homicidal or suicidal.

I love glory; but the success of another never disturbs my slumbers. —JACQUES JASMIN.

FIRE FROM THE ELECTRIC LIGHT.

It is sometimes said that the introduction of the electric light into a public institution is a perfect safeguard against conflagration, since it is impossible for this light to set a building on fire, and its use obviates the necessity for matches. That this is not strictly true is apparent from the statements made by Dr. Moncure, in the report of the insane asylum at Williamsburgh, Virginia. He writes:

This institution was partially consumed by fire last June. As to the origin of the fire, Prof. Houston, a distinguished electrician, appeared before the board of directors and stated that in his opinion the electric plant had been properly put up, and that he could find nothing to convince him that the fire originated from the electric light. But in spite of his learned opinion, I heard nothing during his very elaborate discussion of this light to alter my conviction as to the cause of the fire. The sudden flare-up of the light at 9:45 P.M., followed by the lights (thirty-five in number) going out in the new female building, showed that the short circuit was on that line of wire. It smouldered there until discovered at 10:30 P.M., and when first seen was visible only as a small mass of embers; its location was in the corridor immediately beneath the ceiling; the flame, when first seen by me, extended under the roof from that point to the centre of the ward, following the direction of the ventilating shafts; and it was the lowest point of the fire, there being no trace of fire anywhere else in the ward, except where the electric wires were located.

The incandescent light has been in use at this asylum for twelve months. The light is steady and mellow; it is free from all offensive exhalations and from all smoke. I think that it is the safest of lights, if properly put up and so constructed that water cannot get to the wires. Water is a very good conductor of electricity, and is the only source of danger in the use of this light. In the new building the electric wires will be covered with lead, so that water cannot get to them.

The cost of electric lights, about 300 being in daily use, burning on an average ten hours per day, will be about $8 a day, or $2,900 a year; this includes fuel, lamps, and repairs.

THE DISPOSAL OF SEWAGE BY IRRIGATION.

Col. George E. Waring, of Newport, R. I., has for many years advocated the disposition of sewage by a system of irrigation, which will be better understood by reading the following abridged account of its practical introduction by the State Hospital for the Insane at Norristown, Pennsylvania.

Branch sewers from the various pavilions and out-buildings deliver into a main sewer, which discharges into a flush-tank, 40 feet square, with a depth of five feet, or capacity of 65,000 gallons, between the top and bottom of the discharging siphon. A vertical iron strainer encloses the corner of the tank at which the sewer enters, and retains there, for removal by hand, all paper and other large objects from the hospital. The flush-tank is emptied by a vertical Rogers-Field siphon, which acts automatically, when the overflow begins, and is unsealed at the close of the discharge, so that no more sewage can escape until the tank is again filled to the overflow point. An eight-inch vitrified pipe affords an outlet from the tank; this pipe discharges on the far side of the "irrigation field," at the bottom of a distributing-well; the well is about seven feet deep and six feet in diameter, with three semicircular depressions of the wall, at the top, for the discharge of the sewage. From these openings, three carrier-ditches convey it to different parts of the irrigation field. Movable dams are inserted in these ditches, for the purpose of obstructing the flow, so as to deliver sewage over such portions of the field as it may be desired to reach. The whole of the irrigation tract is under-drained, at a depth of from five to eight feet, with earthen tiles, and all the under-drains empty at a single point into a creek.

The theory of the operation is, that when foul water is delivered on land not already occupied by water, it descends by gravity, and its impurities are strained out and attach to the particles of the soil, just as would occur in any other form of filter. Were the flow of sewage to be continuous on any one area, the filter would become clogged and would cease to act. This difficulty is avoided by dividing the grassed area—a portion of the irrigation area is in cultivation, and is reserved as an area of relief—into four parts, so that each of them may be in use one day in four, with three days for recuperation. After the discharge, as the water settles away, air enters to take its place. The oxygen of the air combines with the organic matter deposited in the soil. An active agent in this process of oxydation is the *bacterium termo*, or the bacterium of putrefaction, which lives upon filth.

In the construction of this work, at Norristown, more than 25,000 feet of drain-tile have been laid, and nearly 10,000 fect of ditch have been dug. The estimated total cost of the improvement is something less than $25,000.

LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

It is generally conceded that in almost every one of the United States, if not in all of them, the demand for a revision of the lunacy laws is urgent.

These laws are for the most part a compend of prior statutes, borrowed from a variety of sources, and embellished by the crude suggestions of persons who have more or less clearly perceived the inadequacy of existing provisions, but who have not very well known how to cure their defects; some of these suggestions have come from discharged patients whose recovery from their insanity was at least doubtful.

No doubt, one reason why it is so difficult to secure the necessary amendments to our present laws relating to the insane, is that legislators possess so little practical knowledge of insanity, and they distrust the counsels of medical superintendents of hospitals, for fear that they may be prompted by interested motives.

We can very readily imagine that it is not easy, for instance, for an ordinarily well-informed legislator to conceive precisely what the condition of an insane person is. How, then, can he know what he needs, or wherein he is a peril to the community? Whoever will take the trouble to examine the statutory definitions of insanity in the several States will be impressed with their inadequacy and the contradictions involved in them. It is not, however, surprising that, if the medical profession can not agree upon a definition of insanity, the lawyers can not. But it is amusing to read in the statute-books that "the term insane includes every species of insanity;" one is inclined to thank the author of this very lucid explanation for his valuable contribution to the sum of human knowledge. The great puzzle which bothers the legislative fraternity is to know whether idiots are, or are not, to be classed with the insane; in some States the answer is yes, and in others it is no. So far as we have observed, where an attempt is made to distinguish between idiocy and insanity, idiocy is improperly defined: an idiot is said to be a person "naturally without mind," or "destitute of mind from birth," or "a congenital imbecile." In at least one State a distinction is made between insanity and imbecility; the imbecility of dementia, we suppose, is not insanity, in this State. Enough has been said to show what a mist of legal uncertainty surrounds the whole subject, for if we can not determine who the insane are, what becomes of the entire superstructure of provisions relating to their care and treatment?

The application of a little common-sense will help to clear away this fog. Considered simply as a disease, the public feels no more special interest in insanity than in any other physical ailment, and there is no more apparent reason why the State should build and maintain hospitals for the insane than for consumptives. But the peculiarity of insanity is that it unfits its hapless victims for social life. They can not maintain normal relations with other people; they can not adjust themselves to those about them. The word "eccentric" is borrowed from mechanics. An eccentric person is unbalanced; his centre of motion is not his centre of equilibrium; and, if he is to be tolerated in the machinery of society and contribute his share to the general result, all the parts of this complicated mechanism must be adjusted to him. But when that is once done, since he remains from year to year the same, and his peculiarities do not change, he occasions no further disturbance of the general equilibrium. Now, an insane man differs from one who is merely eccentric, in that his centre of motion is a variable centre, and, when you think you have solved the problem of adjustment of which we have just spoken, he suddenly changes his base of operations, and you must begin again. In the language of mathematics, the eccentric man has a personal equation, but the lunatic has none. It is this instability in the manifestations of his disease which makes him an object of dread; and it is not the disease, as we have said, but its manifested symptoms, which render him an object of special legislation.

We assume that all such legislation has a double motive—fear and pity. To take an extreme illustration—if the impulses of a lunatic are suicidal, the State seeks to protect him, but if they are homicidal, it is bound to protect others against him. He may be both. Now, in some States the instinct of self-preservation is prominent in the law of insanity, and in others that of compassion. It is fair to remark, further, that legislation on this question is also affected by economical considerations, which have greater weight in some States than in others.

If, with these thoughts in mind, we revert to the statutory definitions of insanity, we discover in them an indication of the spirit in which each State approaches the general subject.

Perhaps it would be more strictly correct to say that the indication referred to should rather be sought in the characterization of the individuals who may in each State be lawfully admitted to the public institutions for the care of the insane. All, we believe, agree in admitting "dangerous" lunatics. But the majority undertake to exclude some portion of the entire insane population from these institutions. Idiots are excluded in a number of States, and so are epileptics. In one State and in one of the territories the reception of any case of harmless, chronic, mental unsoundness is prohibited. In some States only those may be admitted who are "unfit to be at large"—a vague expression; in others any person may be sent to the hospital who is insane and "whose comfort and safety will thereby be promoted." On the other hand, there are States in which the definition of insanity is stretched to include habitual drunkards.

The want of space forbids us to pursue this subject further at the present time; we shall renew the discussion of it hereafter. But we cannot drop it without calling attention to the importance of having in mind, in all legislation respecting it, a clear conception of the analysis which underlies it all.

Medically, of course, insanity is distinguished as mania, melancholia, dementia, paresis, etc. But these are not the distinctions to which we allude.

In respect of their residence, the insane are residents or non-residents; in respect of their pecuniary condition, they are self-sustaining or paupers; as to the duration of their disease (on which its curability in part depends), they are recent or chronic cases; as to its manifestations, they are dangerous, troublesome, or harmless; as to the conditions of their admission to the hospital, they are pay-patients, or they may be indigent, without being technically paupers; as to their relation to their property, if they have any, they are or are not under a conservator; as to their relation to the law, they may or may not be criminals.

The excellence of a general statute governing the insane may be estimated by the completeness and perspicuity with which it recognizes these distinctions and provides for the kind of treatment appropriate to lunatics of each of these classes. Purely medical distinctions are not recognized in any existing statute, which shows that the questions before the legislature and the courts are not medical in their character, with the single exception that the one fact of the existence of disease must be determined by medical testimony.

The precise function of a physician seems to be that of a witness merely; and it is absurd, as well as unjust, to leave the decision of all the other questions involved to any tribunal but a court of competent jurisdiction, whose action should not be merely formal, but should proceed upon a careful and thorough investigation of all the facts in each case.

Love is life's only sign.—KEBLE.

All the vagabondage of the world begins in neglected childhood.—VICTOR HUGO.

THE TOLEDO INSANE ASYLUM.

We present to our readers a fac-simile, on a reduced scale, of the architects' drawing showing the general arrangement of the buildings included in the plan of the new asylum for the insane at Toledo in the State of Ohio. This institution is a contribution to the solution of the problem of detached wards as a mode of caring for the insane, and will command attention from both the friends and the opponents of the new system.

By an act approved April 18, 1883, the Ohio legislature made an appropriation of $500,000 for the erection of an additional insane asylum, and appointed a special commission consisting of the governor, the secretary of State, the attorney-general, and the State auditor, together with Gen. Roeliff Brinkerhoff, of Mansfield, to select a suitable site and prepare plans for the construction of a building or buildings. The site agreed upon is a large farm on the Maumee River, about three and a half miles from the business centre of the city of Toledo, in the northwestern portion of the State, on a level plateau elevated nearly fifty feet above the surface of the river, and with a frontage of 3,200 feet on the old United States military road leading from Fort Wayne, on the Detroit River, to Fort Meigs. Messrs. E. O. Fallis, of Toledo, and J. W. Yost, of Columbus, were chosen as the architects. After careful consideration, and a visit to Kankakee, in the State of Illinois, it was decided to adopt the detached ward system of construction.

The original plans were for twenty-six detached buildings for patients, with a total capacity of 1,060 beds, an administration building, kitchen, bakery, laundry, boiler-house, coal-house, machine-shop, store-house, chapel, and general dining-room ; and the contract for this entire work, including steam-heating, plumbing, and sewerage, was let to Messrs. M. J. & W. Malone for the sum of $460,163.02. Some additional contracts, since made, have increased the amount to $468,237.00. The institution now asks for further appropriations for grading, tile-draining, sidewalks, roads, fences, a railroad switch, an outside fire-line (including iron pipe and hydrants), and the improvement of the grounds, to the amount of $70,550 ; for twelve additional buildings, $115,000 ; and for furniture, fixtures, and stock for farm, $77,500. These, if granted, will bring the total cost, not including lands, up to $763,050, or about $720 per bed. The inmates will come for their meals to the two large dining-room buildings, one of which is for men and the other for women. The "infirm" wards, which will accommodate 120 patients—60 of each sex,—are provided with dining-rooms. So are the "strong" wards, each of which has a capacity of 72 patients only ; these are fire-proof. Each of the "hospital" wards contains 30 beds. Two general bath-houses are contemplated, where patients will bathe under the eye of a physician, thus preventing the abuses which sometimes grow out of bath-rooms in the wards, and saving a considerable portion of the cost of plumbing, besides affording opportunity for a greater variety of baths, adapted to the special needs of individuals. The amusement-hall will have a seating capacity of one thousand. The other buildings shown require no special explanation or description.

It is estimated that additions to the present capacity of the institution can be made on the same plan, including furniture, for about $200 per capita.

All of the buildings are of brick and stone ; none of them, except the administration building, is over two stories in height.

The employés occupy the second floors.

The drawing on page 25 exhibits not only the buildings already erected, but those for which an additional appropriation is now asked.

The general arrangement is that of a village. The administration and domestic buildings are in the centre, and are to be connected by covered corridors, twelve feet wide, with stone foundations, brick walls, and a slate roof, which will also serve as a dividing wall between the male and female departments of the asylum. On each side of this central group of buildings is a large ornamental park, surrounded by a drive-way, and the detached wards are built around these two parks. The violent or strong wards are at the two extreme ends, and are about one-third of a mile apart ; each of them is to have a separate residence for an assistant physician in close proximity to it. The medical superintendent will reside in the administration building, together with his first assistant, steward, and matron. The administration building is flanked on one side by the chapel and on the other by the amusement-hall.

The twenty buildings styled "pavilions" will accommodate in all 736 patients—368 of each sex—and have no gratings on the windows.

The apartments for employés are over the general dining-rooms ; additional provision for their accommodation is to be made over the building to be erected for the use of shops and of the fire department.

The outcome of this experiment will be watched with interest by the people of the United States, who wish to have all their insane properly cared for, but at the lowest cost consistent with their welfare and comfort. The success which has thus far attended the Kankakee hospital encourages us to hope for the best. At the same time there are difficulties in the way of detached general dining-rooms of large size ; and it appears to us that the proportion of "strong" wards is insufficient. The success of the enterprise will largely depend upon the selection of a superintendent who will earnestly, sympathetically, and patiently strive to realize the hopes of those who have planned it and have faith in its future. The plan, as a whole, has many admirable features, and we believe that, if its advantages are carefully weighed against its disadvantages, the balance will be found to be in its favor.

INEBRIATES IN HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

Dr. W. B. Goldsmith, Medical Superintendent of the Danvers Lunatic Asylum, is dissatisfied with the working of the Massachusetts law of 1885, by which the commitment of drunkards and dipsomaniacs to hospitals for the insane was authorized. He says :

Though I believe in the desirability of furnishing a proper place for the care of dipsomaniacs and some drunkards, it should be in its arrangement and discipline very different from an hospital for the insane ; and I can but protest against even provisionally opening the doors of these institutions, already greatly overcrowded and suffering for proper classification, to persons who need treatment entirely different from that given to insane patients, and whose presence is almost always an injury to those for whom the hospitals were designed.

The inebriate is usually, after the immediate effects of his excesses are recovered from, a sane man. The indications to be fulfilled in caring for him are :

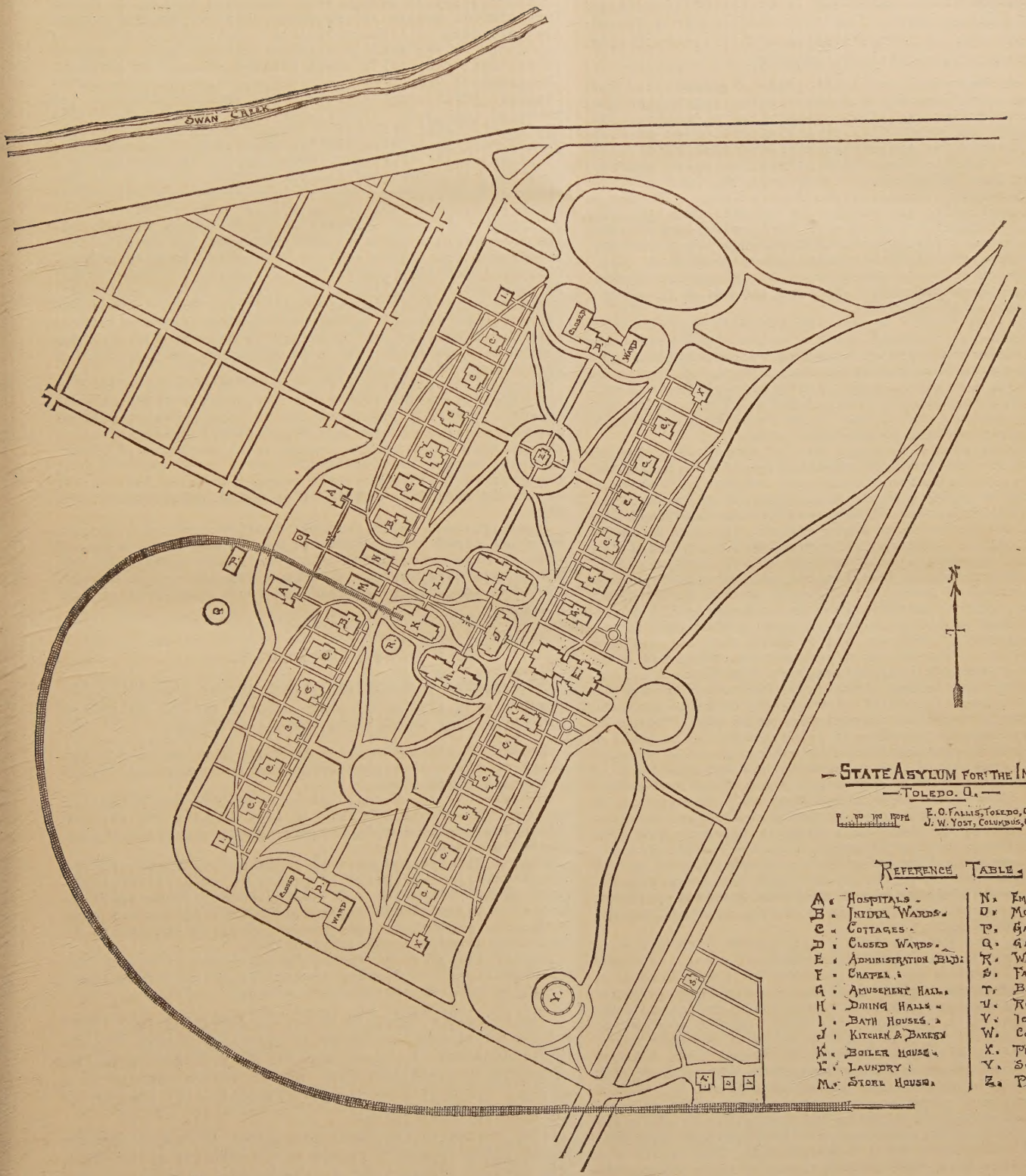
1st. To secure for him a long abstinence from drink, under good hygienic influences, until his system has reached its point of greatest resistance, and has become habituated to encountering a variety of changing conditions, physical and mental, without recourse to alcoholic stimulants, and until the habit is broken by prolonged interruption.

2d. To subject him to a discipline, including compulsory employment, which shall be reformatory in character, and directed to the correction of the weakening and general deterioration of moral character which is markedly to be observed in most inebriates.

To fulfil the first condition nothing will answer except a sentence for a prolonged period, which may not be absolutely fixed, but can resemble the indeterminate sentence practised in connection with some reformatories. The proper detention certainly cannot be accomplished in an institution where the entire organization is planned to give freedom to the individual as soon as a condition of sanity is attained.

Neither is the hospital for the insane better suited to the fulfilment of the indications in the way of discipline. In the case of the inebriate this should be that of a well-managed reformatory, mitigated and softened. It must recognize complete mental responsibility, and should avoid the petty details which are necessary for those with weak and disordered minds.

The retention of the person until it appears probable that he will not continue to be subject to dipsomania or habitual drunkenness, would, if insisted upon, be equivalent, in many cases, to a sentence of imprisonment for life.


SWAN CREEK
STATE ASYLUM FOR THE INSANE
TOLEDO, O.
E. O. FALLIS, TOLEDO, O.
J. W. YOST, COLUMBUS, O.
ARCHITECTS
REFERENCE TABLE
A. HOSPITALS.
B. INFIRM WARDS.
C. COTTAGES.
D. CLOSED WARDS.
E. ADMINISTRATION BLD'G.
F. CHAPEL.
G. AMUSEMENT HALL.
H. DINING HALLS.
I. BATH HOUSES.
J. KITCHEN & BAKERY
K. BOILER HOUSE.
L. LAUNDRY.
M. STORE HOUSE.
N. EMPLOYEES BLD'G.
O. MORGUE.
P. GAS HOUSE.
Q. GAS TANK.
R. WATER WORKS.
S. FARMERS RESIDENCE.
T. BARN.
U. ROOT HOUSE.
V. ICE & REFRIGERATOR.
W. COVERED WAY.
X. PHYSICIANS RESIDENCE
Y. SUMMER HOUSE.
Z. PROPAGATING HOUSE.

STATE BOARDS OF CHARITY.

It is a common occurrence for the editor of the RECORD, in his capacity as Secretary of the Illinois Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, to receive letters from persons in other States, where no such board exists, asking for suggestions as to the points to be covered in a statute creating a State board. The letter which we print was addressed by him to a State senator in Iowa, and will serve as a general reply to all similar inquiries.

There are three possible and actual systems of government of State institutions. *First*, local boards of trustees, with no central supervision, acting independently of each other. *Second*, a central executive board, with no supervision, which replaces the local boards, but has practically the same powers, duties, and responsibilities which these boards possess separately. *Third*, local boards, with full executive power, supervised by a central board, which has no executive power. The first is the system in Iowa, the second in Kansas, and the third in Illinois. We have, in this State, tried the first and abandoned it seventeen years ago: there has been no serious effort to return to it. The second has been advocated by some members of the legislature, and bills embodying it have been repeatedly introduced, but always allowed to die a natural death. I have no hesitation in saying that our system is free from objections which may be urged against either of the other two, and that on the whole it yields the most satisfactory results.

I say "no supervision," because in practice such supervision as is usually exercised by the governor and the auditor of public accounts or State comptroller amounts to little or nothing. It often happens that a governor completes his term of office without paying a single visit to the institutions under his general charge; and the auditor limits his investigations to an examination of the vouchers filed with him, to see that they are properly receipted, and he foots up the accompanying schedule, to see that the total amount is correctly stated—this is all.

The appointment of a competent board of commissioners of public charities remedies this defect; it furnishes an agency which can and will criticise the action or inaction of local boards intelligently, in an impartial and fearless spirit; it secures to the legislature information which local boards might be tempted, for personal reasons, to withhold from the general assembly, or whose bearing upon wise legislation they might fail to appreciate as it deserves; and it gives unity to the system of State charities and correction, without interfering with the freedom of local boards to act according to their discretion, and without depriving individual institutions of the support which each of them derives from a local board exclusively devoted to its interest and welfare. By instituting comparisons between institutions, it tends to bring them up to a uniform standard of excellence, and to reduce their expenses to a reasonable basis of economy. It of necessity takes a broad view of the whole field of charitable and correctional work in the State; it accumulates experience with the lapse of years; and it is in a position to protect the legislature against the peril of extravagant appropriations on the one hand, and that of insufficient appropriations on the other. Having no direct control over the expenditure of public moneys, and no power to make any appointments to position, it can not be suspected of interested motives in its representations or recommendations; and its estimates of the amounts necessary to be appropriated command the confidence of the public. It is an aid both to the legislature and to the executive. It is also an aid and support to the institutions themselves, and its counsel is freely sought by the local boards, while its suggestions have great weight with them. In every State where such a board exists, the condition and management of the institutions have greatly improved, since it began its beneficent work. These boards have been everywhere sustained, in the face of all attacks made upon them, from whatever source; and the States which do not have them are moving, all over the country, for their establishment.

The power of a State board for good is greatest, where it is in no sense executive, but purely and absolutely moral power. The only executive powers which can, in my judgment, be safely granted to it, are those of transfer of inmates from one institution to another, when improperly classified and placed, and in some States, the control of the fund appropriated for the support of "State" paupers, who have no local settlements entitling them to relief at the cost of counties or towns. Under any system of organization, sufficient executive power is lodged somewhere; any change in its distribution adds nothing to it; it is merely a change in the persons or officials entrusted with it. What is needed is not more power to correct abuses, but a sound criticism, founded upon disinterested inspection and investigation by officers disconnected with the actual administration of the affairs of any institution. For this, a non-executive board is indispensable. The creation of a central executive board, with complete control of funds and appointments, is the erection of a syndicate with powers greater than ought, in any large State at least, to be entrusted to any set of men. It brings the system of State institutions into altogether too close a relation to "practical politics" for safety. By the adoption of that plan, the organization of the several institutions is apt to be weakened, rather than strengthened; the powers which should properly be vested in superintendents are to a greater or less degree absorbed by the board; and favoritism is almost certain to be exercised toward one institution at the expense of another. None of the advantages claimed for this system will, I think, outweigh the arguments against it.

In the line of visitation, inspection, and report, the powers conferred upon a central board can not be too unlimited. They should be as ample as it is possible to make them, and should extend to every detail of institution management. The commissioners should not only have the right to enter every part of the buildings and grounds, to examine all books and papers, to question every official and employé, to express freely whatever opinions and conclusions they may form, and to make any recommendation to the governor or to the legislature which they may see fit; but they should have power to administer oaths, to send for persons and papers, and to punish refractory witnesses for contempt. The exercise of these powers ought not to be confined to State institutions, but should extend to all county and municipal almshouses and prisons of every grade. Within proper limits the board should have power, and it should be its duty, to visit and inquire into the management of charitable and correctional institutions owned by corporations or by private persons. The special purposes in view in the creation of a State board of public charities may be presumed to be: (1) the protection of the helpless and unfortunate, by guarding them against possible neglect or abuse on the part of those who have them in charge; and (2) the formation of a correct judgment as to their numbers, situation (outside of institutions as well as in institutions), needs, and the duty of the State toward them. These ends can not be secured unless its investigations take a wider range than the State institutions. It is important that the commissioners should have at their command sufficient funds to enable them to visit freely the institutions of other States, at their own convenience and discretion, in order to enable them to see what has been accomplished elsewhere, and be prepared to recommend whatever improvements, if any, are desirable in the organization and management of the institutions subject to their supervision.

The result of the creation of a State board of the character indicated, in your State or in any other, will be: a steady growth in the efficiency and economy of your public institutions; the amendment of your laws where they need amendment; better care of paupers and prisoners by county and municipal boards; greater equality in the distribution of benefits conferred; increased confidence on the part of the people in the good management of this branch of public business; and a real diminution in the amount of suffering growing out of disease, defect, poverty, and crime.

It only remains to say that the board should be appointed by the governor, not elected by the legislature; that the best service is secured where no compensation for service is given to the commissioners; and that the members of the board should not come from counties in which institutions are situated, but should be wholly independent of local influence.

PRISON LABOR.

At a meeting of the Prison Association of New York, December 29th, resolutions were adopted on the subject of labor in prisons, which we reproduce as follows:

Resolved, That the highest test of excellence in any system of convict labor is to be found in the adaptability of that system to promote the end of the convict's reformation.

Resolved, That the contract system, in principle and in practical methods, is inconsistent with those forms of discipline and treatment that are most conducive to the prisoner's reformation, and should therefore be condemned.

Resolved, That the best and most natural method of employing convict labor is in the manufacture of supplies for use in institutions supported by the State, and in such other public work for the use of the State as can be carried on in confinement; and that, so far as such public work can be provided, the State prisoners should be employed on the same under the public account system of labor.

Resolved, That all State prisoners for whom such public work as is mentioned in the last preceding resolution can not be provided, should be employed upon the piece-price plan of labor.

The admirable report of which the foregoing resolutions are the formulated conclusion, is signed by Messrs. Eugene Smith, Charlton T. Lewis, and W. M. F. Round, a special committee of the Association; and they were adopted at a meeting presided over by Dr. Theodore W. Dwight, of the Columbia Law School.

The true test of excellence of a prison system is not the largest direct return in money to the treasury of the State. The contract system must be condemned on principle, and the public account system for reasons of a practical nature. The only alternative is the piece-price plan. These positions are argued by the committee with great clearness and force. On the subject of the piece-price plan they say:

It differs from the public account system in two particulars, neither of which has any perceptible bearing on the interests of reformation. First:

Under the public account system, the goods are first manufactured by the prison, and then sold to the dealer; under the piece-price plan, the goods are sold by the prison to the dealer in advance, and then manufactured as under a special order. Second: Under the public account system, the plant of machinery belongs to the State, and the raw material belongs to the State; under the piece-price plan, the plant may either belong to the State or be hired from the dealer, but the raw material, instead of being bought by the State, is advanced by the dealer, to be worked up by the prison, in fulfilment of his advance order.

And, again:

The piece-price plan excludes from the prison every foreign element; it makes all the instructors and overseers officers of the prison in the employment of the State; and it gives to the warden supreme control over the labor of the convicts, with unlimited power in the individual allotment and adjustment of that labor. For reformatory uses, therefore, your committee are unable to perceive any respect in which the piece-price plan does not possess all the advantages that belong to the public account system; and there are two important particulars in which it seems to present positive advantages over the public account system. First: It relieves the warden from the financial burden and responsibility of administering a large public fund; it relieves him, in a large measure, from the necessity of maintaining an intimate acquaintance with the conditions of the market, and of opening channels of trade through which he can advantageously dispose of his products; and it leaves him comparatively free to concentrate his energies and efforts upon his proper work of improving the internal discipline and efficiency of the prison *régime*. Second: It relieves the State from an extensive outlay of capital, which ought always to be deprecated, and, if possible, avoided. The public account system places the State in an unnatural position, when it makes it a manufacturer and trader, as well as a capitalist; the piece-price plan transfers the risk of the manufacturing venture and of the fluctuations of the market from the State to the commercial dealer.

THE OHIO INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

The Ohio Boys' Industrial School, formerly known as the Ohio Farm School, occupies a farm of 1,210 acres, six miles south of Lancaster, in Fairfield County; the land lies in two tracts, which meet at opposite corners; the buildings are situated at the point of junction. The surface is hilly in places, and breaks in high, precipitous rocks, the fissures of some of which, only three or four feet in width, rise perpendicularly to a height of fifty or sixty feet. There are fertile valleys between the ridges, but no lakes or rivers on the farm. The climate resembles that of the Allegheny slope: the summers, though warm, are rendered delightful by the fresh breezes, and the winters are warmer than one would expect to find them. In the valleys are vineyards; on the slopes of the hills and the level highlands are the orchards, gardens, and pastures; the soil is sandy and shallow. There are now 20 acres of vineyard, 3,000 peach trees, 30 acres of garden and nursery, and 400 acres of ground otherwise tillable. Besides the main building, there are ten family buildings (named after the rivers of the State); shoe, brush, polytechnic, blacksmith, tailor, paint, carpenter, and bake-shops; carriage, meat, ware, engine, gas, ice, corn, and green-houses; a water-tower, a hospital, a mending-room, a knitting-room, a laundry, a horse-barn, a cow-barn, a piggery, and numerous out-buildings. The main building is for the use of the officers and employés; the cottages are grouped around it, in a segment of a circle, except a double building for about 120 of the very youngest boys, under twelve years of age, which is at a distance of nearly half a mile from the rest of the institution, but is connected with it by a good plank walk; it has its own kitchen, dining-room, and school-rooms, so that the boys do not come in contact with the larger boys except in the chapel, on Sunday. The chapel will seat 600 pupils. The first twelve boys were received from the Cincinnati House of Refuge, January 30, 1858; since then, there have been 4,291 admissions; the present number of inmates is 471. Each "family" is under the care of an "Elder Brother." There is no wall about the farm or buildings.

The above description is condensed from the last published report of the institution.

AMERICAN COLLEGE FOR THE BLIND.

A movement is on foot for the establishment, by Congress, of a National College for the Blind (similar, we suppose, to the National Deaf-Mute College), to furnish a collegiate course of instruction to blind persons, in science, literature, and music, and to provide all the means and facilities necessary therefor. We have received a circular, dated at Baltimore, December 17th, signed by seven principals of institutions for the blind, and accompanied by articles of association and a draft of an act of incorporation. According to the plan proposed, the incorporators are to be the superintendents of institutions throughout the country, with certain other persons named in the bill, who are to elect annually a board of ten managers, in addition to whom three other managers are to be appointed, one senator by the President of the Senate, and two representatives by the Speaker of the House. The College is to be supported by donations, legacies, subscriptions, and by appropriations which may be made by Congress, or by the several States or Territories. Students not under eighteen years of age will be received from each institution or school for the blind, according to the number of pupils in attendance each year. The co-operation of all who are officially in charge of institutions for the blind in the United States is requested, in the effort to secure action by Congress, and they are asked to communicate their views to Mr. F. D. Morrison, of Baltimore, superintendent of the Maryland Institution.

HISTORY OF THE ORIGIN OF IDIOT SCHOOLS.

Interest on the subject was excited by "the Savage of Aveyron," whom M. Itard endeavored to educate in Paris.

M. Ferrus organized an idiot school at the Bicêtre in 1828, the parent of all that have been established since.

M. Falret established a school at the Salpêtrière.

MM. Voisin and Leuret, physicians to the Bicêtre, established idiot schools in that asylum.

Dr. E. Seguin taught in the Bicêtre school.

Dr. Guggenbühl, in 1842, opened his school for cretinous idiots on the Abendburg, near Interlachen.

At the same period Herr Saegert opened a school for idiots in Berlin.

Dr. Kerlin, in 1846, established a school at Leipzig.

In the same year Dr. H. B. Wilbur opened a school for idiots at Barre, Massachusetts.

Dr. S. G. Howe, also in the same year, opened a school at Boston.

In England, at the same time, Miss White established a small institution for idiots at Bath, the first of the kind in Great Britain.

In Scotland, two asylums for idiots were established in 1863: one at Baldevan, Dundee; the other at Larbert, near Falkirk. Dr. Brodie was superintendent of the former, and Dr. Ireland of the latter.

In Ireland, in 1870, an attempt was made to provide for this class. Dr. Stewart, of Dublin, contributed a handsome sum for this purpose, and the Stewart Institute came ultimately into operation at Palmerston.

The foregoing abstract of the historical portion of a paper read by Dr. Fletcher in August, 1884, at the International Exhibition in London, we find in the "Notes and News" of the *Journal of Mental Science* for July, 1885.

PRIZES OFFERED.

The Academy of Moral and Political Sciences of the Institute of France offers three prizes for the best essays on the following subjects. *First:* On the principles which lie at the base of a correct penal system, in accord with the philanthropic doctrines of modern times, 2,000 francs. *Second:* On the improvement of the dwellings of the poor, in relation to their family life, 2,500 francs. *Third:* On pauperism, its present extent, the causes which tend to increase or diminish it, the reason of its prevalence from the sixteenth century until the year 1789, and the influence of increase in wealth and the changes which have taken place in politics, finance, and public and private charity, upon the growth or suppression of misfortune, 5,000 francs.

Children with an industrial education are far less likely to fall into vice.

A FAIR HIT.

Mr. John Fiske, in his little book, "American Political Ideas," tells the following good story: Among the legends of our late civil war, there is a story of a dinner party given by the Americans residing in Paris, at which were propounded sundry toasts, concerning not so much the past and present as the expected glories of the great American nation. In the general character of these toasts geographical considerations were very prominent, and the principal fact which seemed to occupy the minds of the speakers was the unprecedented bigness of our country. "Here's to the United States," said the first speaker,—"bounded on the north by British America, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, on the east by the Atlantic, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean." "That," said the second speaker, "is far too limited a view of the subject. In assigning our boundaries, we must look to the great and glorious future which is the manifest destiny of the Anglo-Saxon race. Here's to the United States,—bounded on the north by the North Pole, on the south by the South Pole, on the east by the rising, and on the west by the setting sun." When the applause which greeted this sentiment had subsided, a very serious gentleman, from the Far West, arose and said: "If we are going to leave the historic past and present, and take our manifest destiny into the account, why restrict ourselves within the narrow limits assigned by our fellow-countryman, who has just sat down? I give you the United States,—bounded on the north by the Aurora Borealis, on the south by the precession of the equinoxes, on the east by primeval chaos, and on the west by the Day of Judgment."

FACT AND OPINION.

The Blind and the Deaf.

Hon. George L. Harrison, of Philadelphia, bequeathed $5,000 to the Pennsylvania retreat for blind mutes and aged and infirm blind persons.

De Puiseaux, the blind chemist, when asked if he would not like to have his sight, replied: "I would rather have long arms, for it seems to me that my hands would teach me what is passing in the moon better than your eyes or telescopes."

Five young ladies, recent graduates of the New York institution for the blind, wishing to supply a great want in their community, have undertaken to establish a circulating library of embossed books for the benefit of those who are similarly afflicted with themselves.

Baron de Lenval, of Nice, has offered a prize of six hundred dollars to the person who shall invent an easily portable instrument for improving the hearing. Only completed instruments are received, and they must be sent in before December 31, 1887. The prize will be awarded in September, 1888, at Brussels.

Dr. C. R. Agnew, of New York, says that of 2,884 cases included in his case-book, 2,163 were diseases of the middle-ear, and that the general practitioner has it in his power greatly to diminish the number of cases which come to the specialist, especially by proper care of nasal and pharyngeal diseases which are apt to extend to the middle-ear.

Prof. Fawcett, of England, said: "With regard to blindness, the silver lining to the dark cloud—the compensation which we derive—is to find the wonderful and inexhaustible fund of human kindness that there is in the world, and to appreciate, as we must appreciate, every moment of our lives, the wonderful and ready willingness with which the services we need are so generously afforded us."

For other nations, the education of the deaf, the blind, the infirm in intellect, may be regarded as a philanthropic provision, or as a compliment to civilization; for republics, it is an imperative duty—the necessary result of the principle upon which they are founded and by which they are sustained—the principle of justice, which accords to every one, not as a privilege but as a right, the full development of all his faculties. —George Sumner.

Mary Glover, of Grand Haven, Michigan, who is not totally deaf, but so deaf that at the age of five years she could not speak one word, is receiving her education in the public schools of the town in which she has her home. She is an admirable lip-reader, has a sweet voice, makes herself understood readily, though her speech is not perfect, and is making rapid progress in her studies. So says *The New Method*, the organ of Miss McCowen's voice and hearing school for the deaf, at Englewood, near Chicago.

In the Le Couteulx St. Mary's institution for the improved instruction of deaf-mutes, at Buffalo, is a lad who is not only deaf but blind. The good sisters have taught him to communicate with his fellow-beings by sewing letters on the palm and inner side of the fingers of a kid glove, which he wears; his sense of touch is so acute that he distinguishes readily each letter in succession as it is pressed by the person who talks with him. These letters are of silver, such as are used for marking ladies' travelling bags.

The number of blind in England and Wales, according to the census returns, has steadily diminished, for the past thirty years. In 1851, the ratio of blind to the total population was 1,021 in a million; in 1861, it was 964; in 1871, it was 951; in 1881, it was 879. This decrease is attributed to the progress of ophthalmic surgery and the diminished prevalence of such diseases as small-pox. The number of blind, in 1881, was 22,832, of whom 12,048 were males and 10,784 females. The number returned as blind from birth was 1,958, or 8.9 per cent. of the entire number. This result agrees very nearly with that obtained in the United States census of 1880, in which 8.2 per cent. were returned as congenitally blind, which tends to confirm the accuracy of both.

The Italian census of 1881 shows a considerable decrease in the number of blind and deaf-mutes during the decade preceding the census, while the proportion of idiots has slightly increased. In all these affections, the number of males was considerably greater than of females—a disproportion which has also been found to exist in other countries. Of the blind, the greatest number was found in Calabria, Sicily, and Sardinia—provinces in which most of the inhabitants have dark eyes. This tends to support G. May in his assertion that the dark-eyed are more prone to blindness than those with light eyes. The greatest number of deaf-mutes was found in Lombardy. This province, and Piedmont, contained the largest proportion of idiots and cretins, so that, in Italy as elsewhere, the inhabitants of mountainous regions would seem to be more subject to these afflictions than those of the plains.—*Schmidt's Jahrbücher.*

Mr. H. Prescott, the blind teacher and missionary to the blind of New South Wales, who is a corresponding member of the British and Foreign Blind Association, intends visiting Europe, with his wife, and will return by the way of the United States. The society which employs him was established in 1877, and is entitled The New South Wales Mission for Teaching the Blind to Read. Mr. Prescott travels about the colony, with a boy to lead him, and teaches the blind at their homes; visits and reads to such blind persons as have no desire to learn to read for themselves; lends, to those who wish them, books printed in raised type; and extends a limited amount of pecuniary aid to the blind poor in sickness or in an emergency. There is a similar missionary to the blind in Victoria—Mr. James; and also in Queensland—Mr. J. W. Tighe, a former pupil of Mr. Prescott. The New South Wales Mission also sustains a home for the indigent female blind, in Alexandria, Sydney. There is an industrial blind institution at Woolloomoolo; and a school for the deaf, dumb, and blind, at Darlington.

The 54th report of the Massachusetts school for the blind contains a brief account of the fifth international congress of instructors of the blind, which assembled in Amsterdam, in August, 1885. The attendance was large, and included representatives from Holland, Germany, Russia, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, England, France, Italy, and Greece. Herr J. H. Meijer, Director of the Amsterdam Institution for the Blind, conducted the preliminary arrangements with skill and success. Papers were read on the vicariat of the senses, the principle of correlation in schools for the blind, instruction of the blind in geometry, printing and bibliography for the use of the blind, the development of the æsthetic element in the blind, the condition of blind women and what can be done for them, etc. The proceedings are to be printed in three languages, Dutch, German, and French. In connection with this meeting, an exhibition of appliances for instruction of the blind, and of the work done by them, filled four large lecture-rooms of the University building in which the Congress met.

Idiocy.

Dr. Ireland asserts that 28 per cent. of imbeciles are left-handed.

The new Kansas institution for feeble-minded youth is at Winfield, and is giving satisfaction to its advocates and friends.

Mr. C. W. Ely, principal of the school for the deaf and dumb at Frederick, is making an effort to persuade the State of Maryland to establish a school for feeble-minded children.

A new asylum for idiot children is to be established at Kew, in Victoria, for the purpose of keeping children of this class separate from the lunatics in the various asylums. Three cottages are to be erected, with a capacity of twenty inmates each—two for boys and one for girls.

At the January meeting of the Montreal Medico-Chirurgical Society, Dr. R. L. MacDonnell exhibited the bones of the lower extremity of an idiot, said to be twenty years old, and never to have walked or spoken. The bones were of average length but remarkably small, the femur being no thicker than an ordinary sized finger; in one femur there was a well-developed third trochanter. The hip-joints were anchylosed in the flexed position, and there was a contraction of the knees. The muscles were strings of fibrous tissue, with little muscular tissue about them. The head was microcephalic, but of good shape.

At a recent meeting of the Pathological Society of Philadelphia, three brains, taken from imbeciles, were exhibited. The first, in which imbecility was complicated with epilepsy, displayed the most marked arrest of development in the frontal and occipital regions; the condition of the pia mater and the lateral ventricles, and the excess of cerebro-spinal fluid, pointed to a brain essentially diseased. In the second, the brain was markedly asymmetrical; the left cerebrum was twice as large as the right, with an entirely different distribution of the convolutions; on the contrary, the right lobe of the cerebellum was twice the size of the left; the shape of the skull conformed to that of the brain. The third was characterized by the entire absence of falx cerebri, the two hemispheres being connected by a bridge of brain substance.—*Phil. Med. Times.*

Dr. C. T. Wilbur, formerly superintendent of the Illinois Asylum for feeble-minded children, but now proprietor of a private institution at Kalamazoo, Michigan, said, in a paper read before the 13th annual convention of the superintendents of the poor in that State, that the total amount thus far expended for lands and buildings for the care of idiots by the several States is $1,813,250, divided among them as follows: Massachusetts, $52,000; New York, $223,500; Pennsylvania, $197,750; Ohio, $650,000; Kentucky, $95,000; Illinois, $250,000; Iowa, $150,000; Minnesota, $75,000; Indiana, $15,000; Kansas, 30,000; California, $25,000; and Nebraska, $50,000. The total amount appropriated for the maintenance of these institutions, since 1848, has been $4,218,679.49, namely: by the State of Massachusetts, $455,625.79; New York $1,106,804.56; Pennsylvania, $525,748.57; Ohio, $1,200,000; Illinois, $608,000; Iowa, $193,894; Minnesota, $48,921; Kansas, $24,685.57; California, $20,000; and Nebraska, $35,000. For the year 1886, provision has been made for the care of about 3,000 persons of this class, at an average cost of say $200 each per annum, or about $600,000 for ordinary expenses, not including additions and repairs.

Insanity.

The northern asylum for the insane, at Traverse City, Michigan, has been completed and is now in operation.

So far as Dr. Shew, of the Middletown hospital for the insane can learn, the town almshouses of Connecticut have been relieved of all their insane.

The pauper lunatics of England cost the government last year nearly $2,500,000—about one sixth of the annual cost of the American hospitals for the insane.

The board of trustees of Kansas State charitable institutions has ordered the placing of lock-boxes in the wards of the insane hospitals, for the deposit of letters addressed by patients to the board.

The medical superintendents of lunatic asylums in Massachussetts are reported to agree in saying, that if they were building a new hospital, they should certainly recommend the congregated dining-room system.

At the next meeting of the Medical Society of the State of New York, Dr. Frederick Peterson, of Poughkeepsie, will read a paper on the adoption of a general system of distributing the insane of New York.

The systematic training of attendants as nurses are trained in a training-school, which was begun at Buffalo, in October, 1883, and afterward at the King's County insane asylum, has now been introduced as a special feature in the insane hospitals at Norristown, Pennsylvania, and Kankakee, Illinois.

The creation of the Willard Asylum, in 1869; of the asylum at Kankakee, in 1883; the detached system of buildings at Norristown, Washington, Jacksonville, and Middletown, and the improved county system of Wisconsin, mark a departure from previously existing plans, which is likely to impress itself upon buildings for the insane in the future.—*Am. Jour. Med. Sciences.*

Dr. Pliny Earle, for more than twenty years superintendent of the Northampton (Mass.) Lunatic Hospital, has resigned his position on account of age, and has been succeeded by his first assistant, Dr. Edward B. Nims. His last report is largely devoted to a review of the operations of the institution, and to a final discussion of the curability of insanity—a subject to which, as is well known, he has long paid special attention. In thirty-nine American asylums, during a period of from three to six years each, making an aggregate of 186 years of hospital work, the proportion of recoveries (including all cases of duplicate, triplicate, and manifold recoveries of one and the same person) was, as compared with admissions, 29.15 per cent. The ratio of recoveries to admissions, in twenty American hospitals, during the last five years, was 29.91 per cent. In fifty-eight American institutions, for the last year only, this ratio was 27.88 per cent. None of these calculations give as high a ratio as 30 per cent. of recoveries on all admissions. In 8,063 cases of less than twelve months' duration, in fifteen American institutions, the percentage of recoveries is 46.88 per cent.

Dr. J. Waughop, medical superintendent of the hospital for the insane at Tacoma, in Washington Territory, discusses in his last report, among other topics, that of unrestricted letter-writing by the insane. He says: "While it is right that patients shall correspond with their friends, if they wish to do so, it is not right that they should write to any one and every one, according to their insane notions. I do not think, for instance, that I ought to be compelled to stamp and mail letters addressed to Queen Victoria, to the President of the United States, or other persons having no interest in the writers. I ought not to be compelled to send letters abusing an invalid wife, who begs me not to send them to her. The post-office box has not been a success; patients never use it; they consider their letters important and want them to go at once. It is their invariable custom to hand their letters to their attendants or to any one connected with the hospital, to be mailed. They never think of using the mail-box; it is given over to the spiders."

At Lincoln, Nebraska, the assistant physician is sworn into the service of the United States as postmaster, and a law of the State compels him to mail all matter handed to him by any patient. Among other consequences of this foolish policy, it occasionally happens that male and female patients in the hospital have the opportunity of corresponding with each other and avail themselves of it; male patients also write to female attendants, and vice versa.

Hospitals and Health.

The appropriation of money to protect the public health is a duty which the law-maker owes to the people whom he represents, and its performance is a partial discharge of an obligation arising out of the ultimate purposes of government everywhere.—JOHN STUART MILL.

The *London Lancet*, in the interest of vital statistics, argues in favor of quinquennial instead of decennial censuses; the population changes so rapidly, in most countries, that ten years from one census to the next is too long an interval.

At Tokio, in Japan, a Bureau of Public Health has been instituted, on the German plan.

The new hospital at Cambridge, Mass., has been completed, at a cost of a little over $60,000; it will soon be opened.

Dr. T. D. Crothers thinks that the secret use of arsenic as a narcotic and stimulant is increasing rapidly, throughout the United States.

The number of general hospitals in London is seventeen; of other medical institutions (including forty-six dispensaries), 154.

St. Bartholomew's Hospital, founded in the reign of Henry I., more than seven centuries ago, claims to be the oldest institution of its class in London.

A recent inquiry into the abuses of medical charity in Liverpool, brought out the fact that 298,000 persons receive gratuitous medical relief annually in that city. There are forty-eight medical relief societies, with an annual income of over $200,000.—*Medical Record.*

The municipality of Paris has decided to erect a crematory at the Cemetery of Père la Chaise, and has adopted plans for its construction.

The annual admissions to the hospitals of France, for ten years past, have averaged 410,000; the population is estimated at 30,000,000.

There are in Paris twelve general hospitals, and nine hospitals for special diseases, with a total capacity of 9,000 beds. There are also six asylums for the aged and infirm; and five establishments for lunatics.

Four hospitals in France are said to be the most perfect specimens of hospital construction, now in existence—the St. Denis, near Paris; Bichât, on the ramparts of Paris; Bourges Militaire; and St. Eloi, at Montpellier. These have been constructed on the system originated by M. Follet. The wards are parallelograms with rounded ends and gothic arched ceilings, one story in height, and raised from the earth upon plinths, with thorough cross-base ventilation.

A new Nurses' Home has been opened, by the trustees of the Boston City Hospital, at the corner of Springfield Street and Harrison Avenue.

Dr. Charles G. Weld has given $500 toward establishing a library for the nurses at the Boston City Hospital.

The Training-School for Nurses attached to Bellevue Hospital, New York, has graduated 244 nurses during the past ten years. Of these, 184, or three out of four, still continue the practice of their profession. Four of them are connected with St. Paul's Home for Trained Nurses in Rome, Italy.

Mr. William Douglas Sloane, of New York, is about to erect, at his own expense, for the College of Physicians and Surgeons, upon their land, Fifty-ninth Street and Tenth Avenue, a Maternity Hospital. His wife (daughter of the late W. H. Vanderbilt) has endowed the hospital, so that all its beds will be free. When completed it will be given to the college, and will bear the name of the "Sloane Maternity."

On the outside of the National Museum of Hygiene, at Washington (which is under the Medical Director of the Navy), a complete system of iron and lead pipes is to be constructed, with fixtures, running from the ground to the roof, with an observing station at each of the three stories, for an exhaustive series of experiments covering all the topics in dispute relating to trap-siphonage, and the utility of the mechanism of water-closets, traps, water-basins, baths, sinks, etc. The experiments under the direction of the Bureau will be watched with interest, since they will be conducted in the interest of pure science, uninfluenced by any commercial considerations.

Dr. Allan McLane Hamilton, of New York, has, for four or five years past, been in the habit of weighting the anterior part of shoes worn by patients suffering from locomotor ataxia. The weight, which should not be so great as to produce fatigue, may consist of a leaden insole, or of a plate fastened between the soles. A few experimental trials will enable the physician to determine just how much lead is needed, and where it should be placed. For those cases which last some time, the degree of comfort is sometimes very great, and the patient's gait is less apt to attract attention, thus saving him much mortification and giving him greater confidence.

There is, in Boston, a Hospital Newspaper Society, which collects papers, magazines, books, and cards, by means of large boxes placed in the railway stations, which are emptied every morning and distributed among the public institutions.

At the New York City Morgue, 5,673 bodies were received, during the year 1885.

The branch of the Massachusetts Infant Asylum at Medford is to be given up, as a measure of economy, and all the children not placed out in private families will be henceforth cared for in the main institution, at Jamaica Plain.

Relief and Aid.

The Associated Hebrew Charities of the United States is an organization perfected at St. Louis, in 1885, which is designed to systematize communication between different cities, in order to facilitate investigation of cases applying for relief. A system of correspondence has been devised, by which no stranger is given transportation to a sister city, unless the association in the city to which he desires to go has first signified its willingness to receive him; nor is any aid extended to one who has been a resident of any other community, until it has been ascertained by careful inquiry at his old home that he is worthy to receive it.

The United Hebrew Relief Association of Chicago assisted last year 1,154 resident families and 113 strangers, at a cost of $12,721.43; expended for the support of the Michael Reese Hospital, $22,874.45; and its employment bureau furnished work to 281 applicants. The following sentences give the spirit in which its efforts are put forth: "To make a man out of a human being is the end and object of true charitable work. Charity does not aim to feed the hungry, though it may give bread to the starving. Its purpose is to enable the hungry to feed themselves, to foster an honorable spirit of self-reliance, to encourage the man who struggles against adversity, to aid the needy to rise beyond the need of aid, to educate the poor in thrift and honesty, to suppress begging, to kill pauperism, to furnish a channel of usefulness to unemployed capital, to open a field of active energy to idle labor, to perfect the organization of society."

The Chicago Relief and Aid Society expended, in 1885, the sum of $38,450.94; it relieved 2,899 families, of which only 495 were American, while 2,404 were foreign. These families contained 13,223 children and 4,578 adults. The directors say that they have experimented in former years with several plans which, after very thorough trial, were found to be impracticable, if not extravagant and injurious, and were therefore abandoned. Among these they enumerate district offices, employment bureaus, free lodging-houses, wood-yards, and soup-houses. "We found by experience that they were productive of more harm than good, because they mainly contemplated encouragement and help to a class of persons who should never be regarded as subjects of charity or claimants upon public sympathy or help. None of these departments could benefit the sick, aged, or infirm, and widows with large families of children—the only classes of persons, in the judgment of this society, who should be accepted as proper subjects of out-door relief, or who can not be better treated in established institutions."

The Pittsburgh Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor maintains diet dispensaries, a temporary home for children, a day nursery, and a country week. Its disbursements last year aggregated more than $27,000. Its visitors paid 25,000 visits to the poor. "Each visitor is a care-taker in her district, full of real interest in the families; she endeavors to make the poor appreciate the fact that their welfare requires them to provide not only for present but for future wants. They are also taught the importance of dependence on their own efforts. Parents are urged to send their children to the public schools, and assistance is offered them to make this possible; while the older children are advised to learn trades, and situations are frequently secured for them where they can earn a living. The visitors are not allowed to give material aid to able-bodied people who are in condition to help themselves; but employment has in many cases been provided for them."

The number of persons under the charge of the New York (city) Commissioners of Charities and Correction is about 14,500.

The Brooklyn Charities Commissioners are planning very extensive improvements to be made on the county farm at St. Johnland. Accommodations are to be provided for 2,000 inmates, and the sewerage and water-supply will be carefully considered. The plans are by Mr. Samuel H. McElroy, C. E.—*Sanitary Engineer.*

The Directors for Public Institutions of the city of Boston have charge of eleven institutions: the house of industry, house of reformation, truant-school, nursery, and hospital for pauper women, on Deer Island; the almshouse for pauper men, on Rainsford Island; the house of correction and lunatic hospital, at South Boston; the Marcella Street home for children; the Austin Farm almshouse; and the almshouse at Charlestown. The moneys expended by them in 1885 aggregated $599,391.46; the average number of inmates during the year was 3,014, and the number at its close, 3,375. The new hospital on Deer Island is believed by them to be a model. They are building a home for paupers on Long Island, to which the inmates of Austin Farm are to be transferred, when the latter will be converted into an asylum for the chronic insane, thus relieving the lunatic asylum in South Boston, which is fearfully overcrowded. This board has not the charge of the out-door poor, who are cared for by the overseers of the poor: the question of uniting both under one management is under discussion. The report before us favors out-door relief rather than commitment to institutions, and longer sentences for "revolvers." On the subject of boarding out the insane it observes: "The insane are not paupers, and should not be treated like them; indeed, the fact appears to be, that instead of boarding them, and thus removing them farther from their relatives and friends, a wise and humane policy would bring them nearer home and kindred. It is true that this might be done by boarding them with relatives or friends—a policy in our eyes no less objectionable than the other, as it would practically create a new and, we fear, a numerous class of pensioners on the government. The people of to-day are too prone to wish to get rid of the old father or mother, old father-in-law or mother-in-law, or other near relatives, when they become helpless in their old age, and we should hesitate ere we remove the barrier of fear of public opinion which alone prevents many a person advanced in years, in their second childhood, from being thrown on the care of the State or city; for if the boarding-out plan with relatives be approved, there would be so little chance of the knowledge of aid received becoming known, that it would cause a very marked increase in the annual outlay. We believe that the unfortunate insane should be well taken care of and that suitable accommodations for their maintenance should be made within a very short distance of Boston, if it can not be done within the city limits; but under no circumstances, in our opinion, should the policy of boarding out the insane be tolerated."

Prisons and Prisoners.

An asylum for discharged female prisoners has been opened near Carlsruhe, in a château belonging to the Grand Duke of Baden.

Michigan is building a new State reform school at Marquette, on the peninsula; the present school is at Lansing; that at Marquette will be an extension of the system.

In Pennsylvania, the Huntingdon County State Industrial Reformatory is not yet in condition to receive inmates, though the work is being rapidly pushed forward.

The estimated cost of the new intermediate penitentiary at Mansfield, Ohio, is $1,326,770. It will have a capacity of 350 cells, which can be extended to 1,000 by putting a fifth tier in the main cell-blocks, for which room has been provided.

The superintendent of the Philadelphia House of Refuge complains that legislation in the State of Pennsylvania, by which the contract system of labor was abolished in 1884, has rendered it impossible to provide suitable employment for more than half of the boys of that institution during 1885, and that the income from their labor has been diminished by $10,000.

In Holland, a century ago, according to the testimony of Howard, it was customary to abridge the appointed time of punishment, so that fourteen years was sometimes reduced to eight or ten, and twelve years to six or seven. "This practice," he remarks, "is in every view wise and beneficial; indeed, I have some reason to think that criminals are often doomed to a longer term, with an intention to make such deductions upon their amendment."

The system of overwork or extra payment to prisoners for labor performed by them after completion of their allotted tasks is, I am convinced, prejudicial to the best management of the prison, and of no real advantage to the commonwealth or to the contractors. If prisoners may stipulate with contractors for terms upon which they will perform acceptable service, it is not difficult to see that they in a measure control their own employment and exercise a privilege which they have justly forfeited upon conviction of their crimes. Besides, the benefits are not equal, and many men are so employed that they can have no share. It is true that some contractors argue that it is for their interest and for the benefit of the State to continue the system; but, in the large and comprehensive view of prison control, and in a full appreciation of the obligations of the commonwealth to the prisoners and of the prisoners to the commonwealth, I have no doubt that a legislative declaration for abandonment of the practice would be most wise. Some allowance may well be made by the State to prisoners in consideration of fidelity, industry, and good conduct; but it should be granted upon a basis of fair and reasonable equality, and should reach every prisoner, without regard to the work in which he may be engaged.—Gov. George D. Robinson.

In the large dining-room of the State prison at Folsom, California, there are three grades of tables, popularly known as the "bean," the "bull-beef," and the "mutton-chop" tables. Of these, the "bean table" is the lowest. The fare consists largely of beans cooked in various shapes, and barley coffee, while no table furniture is allowed the prisoners except a tin cup and plate and a spoon. All the prisoners when they enter are placed at this table and remain there until promoted for good behavior. The next in order is the "bull-beef table," and here, as may be inferred, some meat is allowed the boarders, and they are trusted with a knife and fork. The highest table is the "mutton-chop table"; only those reach this grade who have shown themselves particularly skilled in some branch of prison labor, and thoroughly reliable and trustworthy—such men are made foremen over the other prisoners in the quarry or stone yard or elsewhere—or such men as have been accorded the privilege of doing special work of any kind. Naturally, the "mutton-chop" aristocrats have regained much of their self-respect. Their table is adorned with crockery, and they have good plain fare, a prominent feature of which is butter. Curiously enough, this seems to be more craved than any luxury that can be mentioned, and the severest punishment that can be meted out to the average convict is to deprive him of butter. These three classes are separated as much as possible, the "bean table" being usually served first.—*Sacramento Bee.*

Arrangements are making for the next annual meeting of the National Prison Association, at Atlanta, Georgia, next October or November.

At the meeting of the National Prison Association in Detroit, last year, Mr. Henry Warner, superintendent of the Allegheny county workhouse at Claremont, Pennsylvania, submitted a form of uniform financial statement for prisons, which was approved and recommended by the association. The report of Mr. Warner's prison is the first in which we have seen it in actual use, and it is so clear and satisfactory that we reproduce it, for the information of prison officers throughout the country. If adopted by all of them, comparisons between prisons, in the matter of expenditure, would for the first time become really practicable. "The expenses of this institution for the year ending December 31, 1885, were: For food consumed, $27,025.62; deduct from this amount for support of county jail prisoners, not included in the daily average of prisoners maintained at the workhouse, and which was refunded to the institution, $6,275.95; the actual cost of food is $20,749.67. For clothing in use and consumed, $4,551.88; salaries, $30,851.49; repairs and insurance, $5,283.68; other expenses, $13,846.98; total, $75,283.70. The daily average of inmates was 659⅝; the cost of each inmate was 31 26–100 cents. The earnings from labor or business conducted with outside parties were $59,625.27; from which amount deduct money received for support of county-jail prisoners, $6,275.95; leaving $53,349.32. The value of labor performed by inmates in making permanent improvements to buildings and grounds was estimated at $8,000. The daily average cost of each inmate after deducting earnings was 5 78–100 cents.

Miscellaneous.

The contract for building the soldiers' home at Grand Rapids, Michigan, has been let for $99,667.57.

The State of Kansas has at this late day provided a home for soldiers' orphans, which is situated on a farm of 160 acres near Atchison. It is not yet ready for occupancy.

Senna recommends the use of sea-water in making bread for children suffering from scrofulous affections. After the dough is mixed, it should be allowed to stand for several hours before baking. The taste is said not to be disagreeable.—*Med. Record.*

According to Dr. Carl Seiter, some persons have a defect of smell analogous to color-blindness. One person finds that to him violets smell like garlic, while all other odors are correctly discerned by him.

A prize of one hundred guineas has been awarded, by the English Medical Temperance Association, for the best essay, by a medical student, on the subject; three other essays were named as deserving of special mention. This Association is composed of physicians and surgeons who are themselves total abstainers.

The revenue which will be derived, in 1886, by the city of Chicago, from licenses to sell malt and spirituous liquors, under the high-license law, is estimated at $1,800,000; this estimate is based on the experience of 1885. The total cost of the police department, for 1886, is estimated at $1,250,000.

Twenty-five names of persons claiming to be more than 100 years old were reported by the enumerators who took the inter-decennial census in Iowa: the oldest was Jacob Heike, of Grunde County, who gave his age as 121.

The whole number of children received by the Michigan State Public School, at Coldwater, during eleven years, from its opening, was 1,866, of whom 272 were present at the close of the last fiscal year. The disposition made of the remaining 1,594 is given in the annual report, as follows: Adopted, 127; of age, 94; girls married, 25; died, 68; restored to parents, 142; self-supporting, 190; in almshouse, 61; in reformatories, 40; leading abandoned lives, 7; indentured, 840. The report claims that only 108 are in any way a burden upon the public, either by reason of pauperism or crime; in other words, less than seven per cent. of all children who have left the institution have become public dependents. The per capita cost of maintenance is said to be $109.34 a year, which is certainly low.

St. James' Home for Boys, a branch of St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys, in Baltimore, under the care of the Xaverian Brothers, reports that during the last year, the average number of inmates was 44, who paid, for their board, $3,740.38, while the house expenses were only $3,515.75. The admirable plan upon which this home is organized and maintained is described in the rules and regulations: Any inmate of St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys shall, if considered proficient and sufficiently strong for contact with the world, be received at the St. James' Home for Boys; and any destitute or homeless boy, between the ages of nine and eighteen years, from any part of the city of Baltimore, may be admitted, if he expresses a willingness to become an obedient member of the household, to work for his living at any employment or occupation to which the superintendent may assign him, and to contribute out of his wages a stated sum, weekly, in proportion to the amount of wages paid him, the charge being about one-half of his earnings; he must, in addition, pay for his clothes, which are furnished him at cost. The boys admitted to the industrial school are nearly all committed by magistrates, until twenty-one years of age.

CENSUS LIST OF INSTITUTIONS FOR CHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1880.

(*Concluded from March number.*)

NEW YORK.—American Female Guardian Society, 29 E. 29th St., 157; Children's Aid Society Lodging Houses, 709 E. 11th St., 60; 211 W. 18th St. 62; 314 E. 35th St., 97; 327 Rivington St., 71; 27 St. Marks' Place, 29; 15 New Chambers St., 108; Children's Fold, Boulevard and 93d St., 66; Same, Boulevard and 99th St., 21; Colored Orphan Asylum, 143d St. and Tenth Ave., 296; Dominican Orphan Asylum of the Lady of Our Rosary, 304 E. 78th St., 37; Five Points House of Industry, 155 Worth St., 258; Five Points Mission, 61 Park St., 76; Free Home for Destitute Young Girls, 41 Seventh Ave., 12; Hebrew Orphan Asylum, Third Ave. and 77th St., 292; Hebrew Sheltering Arms, 360 E. 57th St., 104; House of Mercy, 35 E. Houston St.,* 205; Same (St. Joseph's Industrial School and Home for Homeless Children), 81st St. and Madison Ave., 564; Ladies' Deborah Nursery and Child's Protectory, 95 E. Broadway, 62; Same, E. 86th St. near First Ave., 102; Leake and Watts' Orphan House, 110th St. near Tenth Ave., 136; New York Foundling Asylum, E. 68th St. near Third Ave.,* 1,533; New York Infant Asylum, Tenth Ave. and 61st St. (Maternity and House of Reception),* 85; New York Juvenile Asylum, (House of Reception), 61 W. 13th St., 128; Same, Tenth Ave. and 176th St., 671; New York Orphan Asylum, 73d St. near Eleventh Ave., 172; Nursery and Child's Hospital, 51st St. and Lexington Ave., 190; Orphanage of the Church of the Holy Trinity, 400 E. 50th St., 15; Orphans' Home and Asylum, Lexington Ave. and 49th St., 129; Randall's Island Nursery, 167; St. Barnabas House, 304 Mulberry St., 13; St. James' Home, 76 Roosevelt St., 47; St. John Baptist House, 233 E. 17th St., 14; St Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Ave. A and 89th St., 220; St. Patrick's Female Orphan Asylum, Prince and Mott Sts., 185; St. Patrick's Male Orphan Asylum, Fifth Ave. and 51st St., 481; St. Patrick's New Female Orphan Asylum, Madison Ave., 409; St. Stephen's Home for Destitute Children, 145 E. 28th St., 263; St. Vincent de Paul's Orphan Asylum, 215 W. 39th St., 125; St Vincent's Home for Boys, 53 Warren St., 227; St. Vincent's Industrial School, 343 W. 42d St., 39; Sheltering Arms, Tenth Ave. and 129th St., 138; Shelter for Babies, 243 W. 22d St., 18; Society for the Relief of Half Orphan and Destitute Children, 67 W. 10th St., 154; Union Home and School for Children, Eleventh Ave. and 150th St., 106.

OGDENSBURGH.—St. John's Orphanage, 5.

OSWEGO.—Oswego Orphan Asylum, 37.

PEEKSKILL.—St. Patrick's Male Orphan Asylum, Boland Farm, 103.

PETERBOROUGH.—Home for Destitute Children, 55.

PLEASANTVILLE.—Westchester Temporary Home for Protestant Children, 46.

PORT JERVIS.—St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, 66.

POUGHKEEPSIE.—Poughkeepsie Orphans' Home and Home for the Friendless, 48.

RANDOLPH.—Western New York Home for Homeless and Dependent Children, 25.

RED HOOK.—St. Margaret's Home, 7.

ROCHESTER.—Church Home, 39; Rochester Home of Industry, 51; Rochester Orphan Asylum, 105; St. Joseph's German Orphan Asylum, 78; St. Mary's Boys' Orphan Asylum, 104; St. Patrick's Girls' Orphan Asylum, Frank and Vought Sts., 77.

STONY POINT.—House of the Good Shepherd, 37.

SYRACUSE.—Onondaga County Orphan Asylum, 179; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum and House of Providence, 110; St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, 100.

TROY.—St. Vincent's Female Orphan Asylum, 120; Troy Catholic Male Orphan Asylum, 200; Troy Orphan Asylum, 88.

UTICA.—House of the Good Shepherd, 45; St. John's Orphan Asylum, 74; St. Vincent's Protectorate, 210; Utica Orphan Asylum, 91.

WATERTOWN.—Jefferson County Orphan Asylum, 48.

WAWARRING.—Home of the Friendless, 6.

WESTCHESTER.—New York Catholic Protectory, 1846.

WEST NEW BRIGHTON, S. I.—Nursery and Child's Hospital of the City of New York, 244.

WEST SENECA.—St. Joseph's Boys' Orphan Asylum, 108.

YAPHANK.—Children's Home, 9.

North Carolina.

ASHEVILLE.—Orphan Home, 12.

OXFORD.—Orphan Asylum, 150.

Ohio.

BEREA.—German Methodist Orphan Asylum, 41.

CINCINNATI.—Bethel Newsboys' Home, 30 Public Landing, 47; Children's Home, 192 Ninth St., 43; Good Shepherd Reform School, Baum St., 127; Home of the Friendless, 295 W. Court St., 16; Institution of Mercy, 246 W. Third St., 29; New Orphan Asylum for Colored Children, Reading Road, 28; St. Aloysius Orphan Asylum, Reading Road, 234 (see Mount Auburn, Cumminsville, Delhi).

CLEVELAND.—Cleveland Protestant Orphan Asylum, 940 St. Clair St., 42; Industrial School and Home of the Children's Aid Society, Detroit St., 57; Jewish Orphan Asylum, Woodland Ave., 224; Maternity House, Marion St., 39; Newsboys' and Bootblacks' Home, 57½ Pros-

* Contains some adult inmates.

pect St., 16; St. Joseph's Female Orphan Asylum, Woodland Ave., 107; St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, Harmon St., 101; St. Vincent's Male Orphan Asylum, Monroe St., near Willett, 173; Trinity Church Home for Friendless Children, 90 Scoville Ave., 5.

COLUMBUS.—Franklin County Children's Home, 76; Hare Orphan Home, 16; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 721 E. Friend St., 27; St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, E. Friend St., 172.

CUMMINSVILLE.—St. Peter and St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 278.

DAYTON.—Montgomery County Children's Home, 137; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 15.

DELAWARE.—Girls' Industrial Home, 260.

DELHI.—Protectory for Boys (Mount Alverno), 95.

EAST TOLEDO.—German Evangelical Lutheran Orphan Asylum, 35.

FLAT ROCK.—Ebenezer Orphan Institute, 47.

HAMILTON.—Butler County Children's Home, 41.

IRONTON.—Children's Home, 48.

LEBANON.—Warren County Orphan Asylum and Children's Home, 66.

LOGAN.—Hocking County Children's Home, 14.

MARIETTA.—Washington County Children's Home, 74.

MOUNT AUBURN.—Cincinnati Orphan Asylum, 114; German General Protestant Orphan Asylum, 100.

MOUNT UNION.—Fairmount Children's Home, 129.

MOUNT VERNON.—Home for Friendless Children, 12.

NORWOOD.—St. Joseph's Foundling and Private Lying-in Hospital, 45.

PORTSMOUTH.—Scioto County Children's Home, 54.

SPRINGFIELD.—Clark County Children's Home, 44.

TIFFIN.—St. Francis' Orphan Asylum, Hospital and Home for the Aged Poor, 81.

TOLEDO.—Babies' Home and Hospital, 8; Protestant Orphans' Home, 36; St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, 93.

TROY.—Knoop Children's Home, 66.

XENIA.—Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, 606.

ZANESVILLE.—McIntire Children's Home, 31.

Oregon.

NORTH SALEM.—Orphans' Home, 12.

PORTLAND.—Children's Home, 308 F St., 13; Orphans' Home, Thirteenth St., 13; St. Joseph's Orphanage, 361 Fifth St., 31.

Pennsylvania.

ALLEGHENY.—Home for the Friendless, 22 Washington St., 71; Protestant Orphan Asylum, Ridge and Grant Aves., 147; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Troy Hill, 116; United Presbyterian Orphan Home, W. Jefferson and Montreal Sts., 21.

BUTLER.—St. Paul's Orphan Home, 37.

CAMP HILL.—White Hall Soldiers' Orphan School, 236.

CHESTER SPRINGS.—Chester Springs Soldiers' Orphan School, 218.

CHESTNUT HILL.—Bethesda Children's Christian Home, Willow Grove, 103.

DAYTON.—Dayton Soldiers' Orphan School, 197.

ERIE.—Erie Home for the Friendless, 58; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 102.

HARFORD.—Harford Soldiers' Orphan School, 219.

HARRISBURGH.—Children's Industrial Home, 16.

JUMONVILLE.—Dunbar's Camp Soldiers' Orphan School, 187.

LANCASTER.—Home for Friendless Children, South Ann St., 86; St. James' Orphan Home, 119 N. Duke St., 9; St. Mary's Academy and Orphan Asylum, 128 Queen St., 14.

LOYSVILLE.—Tressler Orphans' Home of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, 117.

MCALISTERVILLE.—McAlisterville Soldiers' Orphan School, 167.

MANSFIELD.—Mansfield Soldiers' Orphan School, 204.

MEADVILLE.—Odd Fellows' Home, 5.

MERCER.—Mercer Soldiers' Orphan School, 292.

MIDDLETOWN.—Emaus Orphan Home, 20.

MOUNT JOY.—Mount Joy Soldiers' Orphan School, 310.

NEW BEDFORD.—St. Mary's Orphanage,* 74.

PHILADELPHIA.—Baptist Orphanage, 55th St. and Silverton Ave., 2; Burd Orphan Asylum of St. Stephen's Church, 63d and Market Sts., 60; Catholic Home for Destitute Orphan Girls, 1720 Race St., 103; Children's Homeopathic Hospital, 914 N. Broad St., 14; Children's Hospital, 22d St., below Walnut, 56; Church Home for Children, Angora St., 107; Foster Home Association, Poplar and 24th Sts., 92; Girard College for Male Orphans, Girard and Corinthian Aves., 858; Home for Destitute Colored Children, Woodland Ave., near 46th St., 33; Home for Infants, 4618 Westminster Ave., 27; Homeopathic Hospital for Children, 43d and Oregon Sts., 19; Industrial Home for Girls, 762 S. 10th St., 22; Jewish Foster Home and Orphan Asylum, 1431 N. 15th St., 32; Lincoln Institution, 308 S. 11th St., 100; Same (Educational Home), 49th St. and Greenway Ave., 174; Methodist Episcopal Orphanage, Monument Ave. and Ford Road, 18; Newsboys' Home, 251 S. 6th St., 28; Northern Home for Friendless Children, Brown and 23d Sts., 111; Same (Institute for Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans), 23d St., near Parrish, 295; Orphans' Home and Asylum for the Aged and Infirm of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, 5580 Germantown Ave.,* 74; Orphan Asylum of the Orphan Society of Philadelphia, 64th St. and Lansdowne Ave., 89; Pauline Home, 34 Pastorius St., 9; Philadelphia Almshouse, Children's Asylum, 34th and South Sts., 344; Presbyterian Orphanage, 58th St. and Darby Road, 34; Shelter for Colored Orphans, 44th St. and Haverford Road, 84; Southern Home for Destitute Children, 12th and Fitzwater Sts., 108; St. John's Male Orphan Asylum, 49th St. and Westminster Ave., 317; St. Joseph's Female Orphan Asylum, 700 Spruce St., 118; St. Mary Magdalen di Pazzi's Orphan Asylum, 913 S. 7th St., 9; St. Vincent's Home, 18th and Wood Sts., 142; Union Temporary Home for Children, 16th and Poplar Sts., 35; West Philadelphia Industrial School, 39th and Pine Sts., 111.

PORT CARBON.—Children's Home, 9.

PITTSBURGH.—Church Home, Penn. Ave. and 40th St.,* 48; St. Michael's German Orphan Asylum, Pius St., 10; St. Paul's Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, Tannehill St., 191.

READING.—St. Catherine's Female Orphan Asylum, 1026 Franklin St., 39.

ROCHESTER.—Evangelical Lutheran Orphans' Home, 29.

SCRANTON.—Home of the Friendless, 35; St. Patrick's Orphan Asylum, Hyde Park, 33.

TACONY.—St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, 122.

WARMINSTER.—Emlen Institution for Children of African and Indian Descent, 14.

WILLIAMSPORT.—Home for the Friendless, 19.

WOMELSDORF.—Bethany Orphan Home, 61.

YORK.—Children's Home, 45.

ZELIENOPLE.—Orphans' Farm School, 33.

Rhode Island.

BRISTOL.—Home for Destitute Children, 9.

NEWPORT.—Home for Friendless and Destitute Children, 28.

PROVIDENCE.—Children's Home, 47 Tobey St., 57; Rhode Island Children's Hospital and Nursery, 204 Williams St., 12; Shelter for Colored Children, 20 Olive St., 22; St. Aloysius Orphan Asylum, Prairie Ave., 183; St. Mary's Orphanage, East Providence, 8.

South Carolina.

BORDEAUX.—Lethe Institute, 16.

CHARLESTON.—Boys' Orphan Asylum, 173 Calhoun St., 33; Charleston Orphan House, Calhoun St., 218; Confederate Home, Broad St., 31; Female Orphan Asylum, Queen St., 64.

CLINTON.—Thornwell Orphanage, 24.

COLUMBIA.—Palmetto Orphan Home, 11.

Tennessee.

CHATTANOOGA.—Orphans' Home, 5.

KNOXVILLE.—Girls' Industrial Home, 18; Orphans' Home, 6.

MEMPHIS.—Canfield Colored Orphan Asylum, Dunlap St. and Ohio Ave., 30; Church Orphan Home, Raleigh Road, 42; Home for the Homeless,* 30; Leath Orphan Asylum, Manassas St., 46; St. Peter's Orphan Asylum, Henry Ave., 80.

NASHVILLE.—Protestant Orphan Asylum, 143 S. Spruce St., 29; St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, Murfreesboro Pike, 76.

Texas.

CEDAR BAYOU.—Bayland Orphan Home, 47.

GALVESTON.—Galveston Orphans' Home, 13; St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, 97.

SAN ANTONIO.—St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 49.

Vermont.

BURLINGTON.—Home for Destitute Children, 80; Providence Orphan Asylum and Hospital,* 96.

Virginia.

FREDERICKSBURGH.—Female Episcopal Charity School, 9.

LYNCHBURGH.—Lynchburgh Female Orphan Asylum, 46.

NORFOLK.—Jackson Orphan Asylum, 11; Norfolk Female Orphan Asylum, 23; St. Mary's Female Orphan Asylum, 18.

PETERSBURGH.—Methodist Female Orphan Asylum, 11; St. Paul's Church Home, 8.

PORTSMOUTH.—Portsmouth Orphan Asylum, 15.

RICHMOND.—Female Humane Association, Leigh and Seventh Sts., 60; Friends' Colored Orphan Asylum, Charity St., 16; Richmond Male Orphan Asylum, Amelia St., 52; St. Joseph's Female Orphan Asylum, 53; St. Paul's Church Home (Children's Department), 506 E. Lehigh St., 32.

Washington Territory.

VANCOUVER.—St. Genoveva's Female Orphan Asylum, 35; St. Vincent's Male Orphan Asylum, 22.

West Virginia.

WHEELING.—Children's Home, 20; St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, 49.

Wisconsin.

ELM GROVE.—St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, 17.

FOND DU LAC.—St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 28.

GREEN BAY.—St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 73.

LA CROSSE.—St. Michael's Orphan Asylum for Boys, 35.

MILWAUKEE.—Milwaukee Orphan Asylum, 320 Division St., 51; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Lake Ave., 71; St. Rosa's Orphan Asylum, 68; St. Vincent's Infant Asylum, Railroad St. and Third Ave., 31; Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, Lake Ave., 95.

RACINE.—Taylor Orphan Asylum, 35.

ST. FRANCIS STATION.—St. Æmilianus Orphan Society and Boys' Home, 111.

SPARTA.—St. Francis Orphan Asylum for Girls, 41.